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Linking the Academia and the Industry

An EDITORIAL for International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research

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The present issue of the International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research addresses diverse agendas that are crucial in the global hospitality and tourism industry. The agendas comprises psychological well-being of service employees, brand reputation, local food purchasing in the farmers' market, fairness scale development, emotional attachment, small-scale tourism enterprises, corporate social responsibility, community development, service failure, and halal tourism. Articles in the current issue deal with these important agendas/issues in a variety of emerging sectors in hospitality and tourism across many countries (e.g., Korea, America, Ethiopia, Indonesian, Taiwan).

One of the key contributions that the present issue of the International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research has is that the included papers help linking the academia and the industry. The main findings of the encompassed papers contain practical information that is readily and directly usable in airline, restaurant, casino, local tourism, tourism enterprises, hotel, event, and national park sectors.

That is, the studies in the current issue irrefutably contribute to various managerial/practical perspectives of the entire hospitality and tourism industry. Lastly, the present issue of the International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research helps us better comprehend the tourism phenomenon in globe. The forthcoming issue of the International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research in Fall 2019 will stimulate innovative research that deals with new methodology and multiple methods in hospitality and tourism.

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Fairness scale development in the tourism domain*

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Abstract

This research aims to develop a socially acceptable scale to measure fairness (SAS-Fairness scale) in the context of tourism. It is because fairness is an essential element to accomplish sustainability in diverse domain. To develop the fairness scale, we reviewed a wide range of fairness-related studies in multiple areas to discern the subtle nuances of fairness and referred to scale development studies/guidelines to develop sophisticated statements. After an in-depth review of previous studies, a total of 61 items under 5 sub-dimensions (i.e., cooperation, altruism, virtue, trust, and communication and embrace) of fairness were initially formulated, and 7 to 10 items were created and assigned to each main theme. To test the validity and consistency of the developed statements, we distributed 330 questionnaires to Korean university students (excluding 10 of 330 in the final sample due to insincere or missing responses). For the data analysis, this research carried out exploratory factor analysis and frequency analysis. As a theoretical contribution, we provide segmented sub-dimensions of fairness, which in turn enhance the current body of knowledge on fairness. As a practical implication, the study results will enable tourism administrators and researchers to accurately measure fairness, in turn facilitating future empirical studies.

Key words: Fairness, Cooperation, Altruism, Virtue, Trust, Communication

I. Introduction

Some members of society have been historically discriminated against because they are differentiated from groups based on gender, race, religion or social class. Typically, social dominance drives a monopoly on the limited social resources of wealth and power, allowing an unfair social structure to emerge characterized by unfair distribution (Grossman & Noh, 1994; Young, 2001). Beginning in the 19th century, the industrial revolution shifted the social order from farming societies to industrialized societies in which wealth and power are concentrated in certain groups, deepening the economic disparity between the haves and the have-nots. Since that time, inequality has become an important social issue, and the issue of social injustice across society has been attracting attention in the academic world (Justman & Gradstein, 1999; Acemoglu & Robinson, 2002).

Within the context of trade, the importance of fair trade partnerships between stakeholders has been emphasized. Therefore, the issue of wealth inequality caused by unfair trade structures, labor exploitation, and human rights abuses has been frequently addressed (Doane, 2001; Moore, 2004). The World Fair Trade Organization (WFTO) supports fairness in trade, arguing that rights including safe working conditions and proper working hours should be guaranteed as a rule of fair trade (Mohan, 2009; Ballet & Carimentrand, 2010; Raynolds, 2012).

In the tourism context, the perception of negative impacts from conventional mass tourism has been increasing, such

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that skepticism about types of tourism has dramatically spread since 1980 (Cohen, 1988; Weaver, 1995). Indiscriminate tourism developments and inconsiderate touristic manners, which have been known as serious causes of mass tourism, result in destructions of natural, social, and cultural resources in a community or a nation (Butler, 1992; Weaver, 1995; Choi & Sirakaya, 2005). As a response to touristic ills, new tourism formats including fair tourism, ecotourism, green tourism, and responsible tourism (even though some of these terms overlap semantically) have appeared as an alternative tourism types (Butler 1992). Among these alternatives, fair tourism, which incorporates a notion of 'fair trade' in the tourism context, has received greater attention. 'Fair trade' represents a social movement urging the necessity of formulating healthier trading conditions for producers and workers (Renard, 2003; Le Mare, 2008). The WFTO similarly notes that the core values of fair trade are based on transparency, equity and respect for producers and workers' rights. In this sense, fair tourism accepts features of fair trade, such as the transparency of tourism transactions, the fair distribution of tourism benefits and sharing ownership with travelers, tourism agencies, and local residents (Mitchell & Reid, 2001; Spenceley, 2005).

Despite growing attention to fairness in society, fairness has lacked a clear definition. Clayton and Opotow (2003) argued that each culture has its own norms of fairness and that individuals and social groups define fairness differently; therefore, fairness becomes unstable and controversial. Additionally, fairness is a quite complex and potentially contentious controversial issue, with many possible definitions (Holcombe, 1983; Kane, 2010). In this respect, a wide range of fairness issues has emerged and has been emphasized in various studies, while defining fairness is difficult and ambiguous.

II. Literature review

1. Fairness

From the 1960s to the 1980s, the main stream of fairness studies in psychology focused on fairness issues in an organization (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Fortin & Fellenz, 2008). These studies have dealt mainly with "balance between employees' input and output" (called "distributive justice"), the "fairness of organizational processes" (called "procedural justice"), and "equal treatment among employees" (called "interactional justice") (Adams, 1965; Leventhal, 1976; Colquitt, 2001).

With regard to distributive justice, scholars have argued that individuals in an organization are likely to compare the efforts that they put forth, such as performing his/her duties, achievements, and skills offered with outputs, such as income, welfare, and promotions (Thibaut & Walker, 1978). If the two ratios are fairly equal, they recognize the mood of fairness. Adams (1965) defined distributive justice similarly, maintaining that fairness perception in an organizational setting could be created when comparing the degree of compensation for one's effort with that of others. From a slightly different angle, Leventhal (1976) argued that individuals accept 'justice' differently, depending on one's own circumstances. He divided the principle of distribution into three categories. First, when organizations aim to achieve unity among members, they tend to choose the principle of equitable distribution that guarantees equal compensation. Second, when organizations aim to target productivity, they tend to give more rewards to employees who obtain more outcomes. Additionally, when aiming for welfare, they must compensate employees for distribution, depending on the extent required.

Rather than focusing on the one-dimensional comparisons between the individuals' inputs and outputs, Thibaut and Walker (1978) discussed "a process" in approaching and understanding justice: "procedural justice," which was initially proposed as a solution to legal disputes. They conducted an experiment to test group responses in the context of a hypothetical situation: they allowed one group to speak their opinions in court and controlled the other group. As the result of the experiment, the first group was perceived to be more impartial during the judicial proceedings. Tyler and Lind (1992) proposed a group-value model, that is, an extended version of the self-interest model in which individuals will perceive high procedural fairness if there is a high probability that they predict favorable results.

Individuals perceive fairness because organizations treat them fairly as group members. Therefore, they realize the importance of procedural justice for maintaining lasting relationships with other members. Hence, interactional justice is known as the degree to which decision makers in an organization fairly or reasonably treat a group member in the decision-making process, which can be defined as interpersonal treatment that an employee experienced(Greenberg, 1990, 1994). More recently, interactional justice has been categorized into two types of justice: interpersonal justice and informational justice (Colquitt, 2001).

Moorman (1991) defined 'justice' in organizations as procedural fairness and interactional fairness by validating the relationships between fairness and organizational citizenship behavior. The author argued that organization members who perceive themselves to be fairly treated show consistent citizenship behavior and trust toward the organization. In addition, Organ and Moorman (1993) indicated that the perception of fairness motivates 'prosocial organizational behavior,' which is a positive social act that includes 'helping others,' 'sharing one's possessions,' and 'cooperating on the job' (McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Organ & Ryan ,1995). In this respect, organizations with a fair environment/system can foster positive attitudes/responses or trust such as citizenship or prosocial behaviors in organizational members (Lee & Allen, 2002; Voas, 2014).

2. Sub-theme of fairness

A vast body of literature in psychology has claimed that cooperation can be defined as individuals' intention not only to pursue personal pleasure and satisfaction but also to desire a fair distribution in the public interest (Tyler, 1988; Baland, Bardhan, & Bowles, 2018). Individuals desire to punish those who undermine the public interest and behave in an unfair and uncooperative manner (e.g., depriving individuals of their opportunities to cooperate) in a society (Hegtvedt & Killian, 1999; Tabibnia & Lieberman, 2007). As an example, in business relationships, individuals seek a fair distribution through cooperation with partners. However, if a partner shows unfair and inadequate behavior, the other partner will punish him/her by taking advantage of profits and terminate the cooperative relationship. (Bowles & Gintis, 2002; Trevino & Youngblood, 1990). It can be inferred that individuals pursue social stability by rejecting social unfairness and show their "willingness to cooperate" in a voluntary manner (Fehr & Schmidt, 1999; Hayton & Mc Enhill, 2015). In this respect, we defined cooperation as an attitude toward contributing to society in harmony and considered it a sub-theme of fairness.

According to several researchers in sociology and philosophy, contributing to society through cooperation and a perception of social responsibility evolved from altruism (Axelrod & Hamilton, 1981; Zahavi & Levin, 1997; Andreoni, Rao, & Trachtman, 2017). Hamilton (1964) defined altruism as a concern for others' welfare rather than for one's own welfare, and it can be considered the opposite of selfishness. Thus, altruism is a psychological characteristic that allows individuals to work voluntarily with others and voluntarily invoke the spirit of self-sacrifice for others rather than concern for one's own welfare (Fehr & Schmidt, 1999; Bolton & Ockenfels, 2000; Reichlin, 2019). Given the semantic association with fairness (considering and assisting others without compensation), we regard altruism as one of the sub-themes.

In psychology and sociology research, 'altruistic individuals' are more likely to help others and forgive others' mistakes (Exline & Baumeister, 2000; Reichlin, 2019). This human psychological trait is called embrace: a tendency to forgive others based on individuals' fairness values and not on a legal standard (Enright, Gassin, & Wu, 1992; McCullough,, Worthington, & Rachel, 1997). Therefore, the altruistic are willing to sympathize with and respect others' behaviors based on their 'embrace' value (Exline & Baumeister, 2000). Embrace leads people to forgive others for their mistakes presumably in pursuit of fairness (Hebl & Enright, 1993). Given the semantic similarity, we also consider 'embrace' a sub-theme of fairness.

Communication is a central method for social interaction, and it is a way of expressing individuals' opinions or share information. Thus, sound communication can play a role in improving relationships with others and creating a sense of fairness (Joung & Smolka, 1998; Peysakhovich & Rand, 2015). Moreover, scholars have shown that continuous communication through expressing opinions prevents the spread of the perception of unfairness and produces positive effects, such as job satisfaction (Joung & Smolka, 1996; Schultz, Utz, & Göritz, 2011). Given this information, this research defined communication as a 'window of expression,' which would be related to fairness.

Trust is defined in psychology and education research as a belief in individuals' intentions and abilities in relationships and expectations with regard to others' actions (Hosmer, 1995; Johnson & Cullen, 2017). A number of studies have revealed a significant association between trust and fairness (Colquitt, 2001; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Building stronger trust with others, individuals are likely to treat each other fairly, which in turn shows favorable support for others' assertions (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011). Once individuals establish a sense of trust that the information resources they interact with are fair and equitable, they place more value on the resources exchanged and believe that the information is more meaningful (Hosmer, 1995). Considering the arguments in the existing literature, trust can be defined as the degree of belief in resources provided, and we select it as a major sub-theme of fairness.

Numerous scholars in psychology and sociology have defined 'virtue' as a similar sense of fairness (McDowell, 1979; Rest, 1986). Virtue refers to one's empathy with others' situation after judging whether an action was performed in accordance with the standard of right or wrong (Piaget, 1965; Duncan, 2017). Floger (1998) argued that the majority of people pursue virtue to avoid egoism, which ultimately solves social conflicts, that is, individuals judge whether an action is fair given their values prior to a certain action for the purpose of avoiding self-centered behavioral patterns (Floger, 1998). In this vein, we believe that virtue can be an appropriate sub-theme of fairness.

III. Methodology and Results

1. Construction of the fairness scale

Some studies have developed measurement scales for fairness (Colquitt, 2001); however, they have missed significant issues or restrictively focused on specific elements of fairness. Thus, the main objective of this study is to understand and identify a wide range of fairness (including psychological, sociological and management understandings) themes and systematically develop a multidimensional fairness scale. By developing this scale, this study can lay a foundation for fairness studies in social science, such as examining individuals' psychological attitudes or behavioral intentions and help to interpret social phenomena. To develop the fairness scale, we reviewed a wide range of fairness studies in multiple areas, finding a deeper and hidden meaning of fairness, and referred to scale development studies to examine the scale development process (Ap, 1992; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Choi & Sirakaya, 2005). First, we reviewed a wide range of fairness-related studies to find the main themes of fairness, as well as specific sub-themes of each main theme. Once the themes/sub-themes were found, we created an item pool to reflect the meanings of fairness that we found and to decide on the items for eventual inclusion in the scale (Ap, 1992; Lankford & Howard, 1994). A total 61 items were initially formulated and between 7 and 10 of the items created were assigned to each main theme. Additionally, scale development guidelines were consulted to develop appropriate items regarding the level of statements, the number of words in each statement, and the use of statement characteristics, such as clarity, neutrality, unambiguity, and redundancy (Lankford & Howard, 1994; Ap & Crompton, 1998). Next, we requested advice from nine academic scholars to validate the items generated. They were asked to review the candidate items and evaluate how appropriately the remaining items mirrored the themes (using a 5-point Likert scale from inappropriate to appropriate). They were also asked whether it was necessary to modify items' syllables, clarity, neutrality, simplicity, and directionality, address any ambiguity and avoid double-barreled items by using open questions. We next counted and summed the scores and left the items that received more points. After the verification process, 38 items remained. Figure 1 depicts the items of measurement.

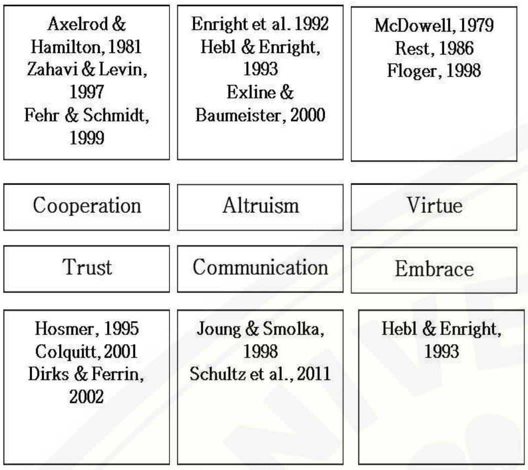

Figure 1. Measurement of items and literature

2. Sample selection

The factor patterns that emerge from a larger sample will be more stable and reliable than those from a smaller sample (Hair et al., 2006). However, a standard rule for the appropriate sample size has not been formulated (MacCallum et al., 1999). Some researchers have suggested a suitable standard sample size for factor analysis. For example, if there are 5 to 10 items, 300 might be adequate for a factor analysis (Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987), for fewer than 40 items, a sample size of 200 is adequate in most factor analysis cases (Hair et al., 2006). According to Hinkin (1995), a sample of 150-200 would seem to be the acceptable minimum for scale development procedures. Additionally, Hair et al. (2006) argued that if only a single scale is to be extracted from a pool of approximately 20 items, a sample of fewer than 300 might suffice.

Based on the criteria, we distributed 330 surveys to students at Kyonggi University, South Korea, and excluded 10 of 330 surveys because of insincere or missing responses. The participants were asked how much they agreed or disagreed with each of a series of statements. That is, the respondents were asked to mark 5 for "strongly agree" and 1 for "strongly disagree." The participants' average age was 25, with a median age of 23. The proportion of males and females was 42.8% and 50.0%, respectively.

3. Validation and consistency of the fairness scale

After the items were refined, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal components analysis (PCA) with a varimax rotation was performed on the remaining 32 items of the fairness scale. EFA is an appropriate statistical method to determine the underlying structure of a relatively large set of variables (Floyd & Widaman, 1995). Any individual item with a factor loading of less than .4 was eliminated to facilitate the interpretation of the results (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). After an EFA series, 21 items were loaded on six domains. Tables 1 shows the domain descriptors, items, factor loadings, Eigenvalues, percentage of variance by individual domains and composite Cronbach's alpha.

The six factors are labeled as follows: Factor 1 = Cooperation (6 items; alpha=.84), Factor 2 = Altruism (3 items: alpha=.71), Factor 3 = Virtue (3 items: alpha=.72), Factor 4 = Trust (3 items: alpha= .70), Factor 5 = Communication (3 items: alpha=.61), and Factor 6= Embrace (3 items: alpha= .60). The first factor, Cooperation, includes six items pertaining to the cooperative behavior of fairness: relationships with people (two items), harmony with others (three items), and equal opportunity. This factor explained 17% of the total variance, with loadings ranging from .81 to .62.

The second factor, Altruism, is the psychological status regarding sacrifice for others and consideration. This factor explained 9.7% of the total variance and loadings ranging from .82 to .71. The third factor, Virtue, is related to goodness toward people or nature. Three items with loadings from .81 to .75 are included in the factor, explaining 9.4% of the total variance.

The fourth factor, Trust, had three items - trust information, broadcast and authors' rights - with loadings from .85 to .61, explaining 9.3% of the total variance. The fifth factor, Communication, included expressing opinions (two items) and discussion, with 9.1% of loadings from .82

to .63. The sixth factor, Embrace, included forgiveness, respect for others and being generous with others' faults. This factor's loadings range from .75 to .54 and explain 7.8% of the variance. Additionally, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sample adequacy tests was used for additional verification of the sample size. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy is .78. This score is a good indication that the factor analysis is useful for the items (Hair et al., 2006). Additionally, the result of the Bartlett test was significant (p= .00). This result illustrates that there are correlations in the dataset that are appropriate for factor analysis.

Cronbach's alpha is a widely used estimate of reliability (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Cortina, 1993; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The minimum and maximum value range of Cronbach's alpha is from 0 to 1. Although there is some controversy in the literature about the alpha's acceptance levels, values of .7 or higher have generally been considered the desired level of reliability, while values higher than .6 but less than .7 are generally regarded as the minimum acceptance level (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Therefore, six conceptual domains from the result of the EFA were then assessed for reliability. Alpha reliability coefficients for the FS are shown in Table 1. The results of the reliability test of the fairness scale are included in each factor, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from a low of .60 to a high of .84, with a total scale reliability of .78.

IV. Conclusion and implications

Schmitt et al. (1991) argued that developing a scale is a difficult and time-consuming process. According to Hinkin (1995), many of the measures used in the study of management have serious flaws. For instance, some measures are used in research conducted in hospitality settings (e.g., Tracey & Hinkin, 1996), and measures commonly used in research in this industry have been

Table 1. Results of factor analysis (N =320)

Factor	*Item*	*Factor loading*	*Eigen value (Variance %)*
Cooperation (α = .84)	We must unite ourselves to move towards a better society	.819	3.594 (17.095)
	I believe it is important to give credence to others	.815	
	Harmony is a means to understand each other	.751	
	I place importance on relationships between people	.714	
	The unity among members in an organization can increase working efficiency	.651	
	We should provide equal opportunity for social underdogs	.622	
Altruism (α = .71)	I risk losing money for the sake of others	.824	2.057 (9.797)
	It is more important for me to consider my community than myself	.731	
	I don't hesitate to help my co-workers with their trouble	.712	
Virtue (α = .72)	I like volunteering	.817	1.994 (9.495)
	Helping others is pleasurable	.779	
	I think about environmental protection	.750	
Trust (α = .70)	I believe that the media is providing reliable information	.856	1.973 (9.394)
	I trust broadcasts through TV	.846	
	Copyrights are protected by copyright law	.616	
Communication (α = .61)	I express my opinions	.826	1.927 (9.175)
	I complain about companies' unfair treatment	.675	
	I like debating	.634	
Embrace (α = .60)	I am tolerant of others ' mistakes	.751	1.658 (7.896)
	I tend to sympathize with issues	.700	
	I respect my colleagues' opinions	.543	

Note: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy = .784, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = 2134.879

shown to have psychometric problems (e.g., Carman, 1990). Therefore, if a researcher does not use proper procedures, the conclusions will be unreliable. Given this assertion, this study created and validated a comprehensive scale of people's perceived fairness that incorporated the complex dimensions of the construct.

This research employed the conceptual framework of fairness in the context of psychology, sociology, philosophy, and education (Sears & Funk, 1991; Greenberg, 1994; Lind & Van den Bos, 2002). Researchers have examined the importance of fairness and behavior (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Moorman, 1991; Colquitt, 2001), and tourism researchers have suggested the importance of fair tourism, a new tourism alternative (Renard, 2003; Le Mare, 2008; Mowforth and Munt, 2015). Fair tourism applies the concept of fair trade and has been addressed in conceptual research (Moore, 2004; Doane, 2001). In terms of the measurement of fairness, the argument that a representative measurement scale (Colquitt's scale) is robust has been criticized because it is applied only within organizational fairness.

This standard fairness scale has been widely used in numerous disciplines, but it has failed to accurately generalize the dimensional framework of fairness in social phenomena (Lee-Wingate & Stern, 2007; Tyler & Dawes, 1993). The main cause of this discrepancy was not the theoretical link with social phenomena but rather a methodological issue based on the limitations of existing scales. In this way, several studies have argued that a new fairness measurement scale should be considered (Cole & Zieky, 2001; Hartmann & Slapničar, 2012). The absence of a fairness measurement scale has meant that researchers have not been able to grasp the exact state of individuals' perception of fairness. These arguments describe the need to develop a measurement scale. Therefore, this study developed a scale to measure individuals' attitudes toward the perception of fairness and mitigates the existing scales' flaws. In addition, by scrutinizing deep-seated fairness and generalizing it, this study suggested a wider but more elaborate fairness measurement scale called the SAS-Fairness scale. In this way, the study represents the first empirical examination of the development of a scale for the perception of fairness.

Following a process recommended by Churchill (1979), this study summarized the main themes of fairness in psychology, sociology, philosophy and political science in order to develop a valid and reliable fairness scale. Then, respondents' answers were generalized through quantitative verification tests. In order to enhance the content validity of the generalized items, through comments from experts and a pilot survey of graduate students, 32 items remained from initial 61 items after two stages. EFA was performed, and the reliability of the items was tested using Cronbach's alpha. The alphas indicated that the developed items were internally consistent. The result showed that the fairness scale was reliable.

This study found new fairness dimensions that have not been found in previous fairness studies (i.e., cooperation, altruism, virtue, trust, communication and embrace). In this sense, the study enhances the current fairness literature and complements fairness measurements.

This research is not free from limitations. Given the difficulty of obtaining diverse samples, this study examined only undergraduate and graduate students' preferences. Therefore, further study is necessary to test preferences with a more diverse sample. Although an acceptable fairness scale was developed, this study generally represents the fairness preferences of people in their 20s. This study also used a limited sample that could not provide a satisfactory level of construct validity. In the initial stages of scale development, EFA can be a satisfactory technique for scale construction. However, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) should be used when validating the hypothetical relationship between a construct and its descriptors. Moreover, modifying instruments is necessary to improve their psychometric capabilities Thus, further research is needed to test the scales' reliability and validity using CFA with a wide range of ages.

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The study on the moderating effect of psychological well-being between the multiple roles of married flight attendants and job performance

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Abstract

In order to accomplish the purpose of this study, we derived the multiple role commitment of married female flight attendants, the job performance, the emotional labor parameter, and the psychological well - being, the control variable, based on the previous research. After that, the questionnaire was used for empirical analysis and it was conducted for a married female flight attendant working on an international flight of K and A Airlines, a Korean national full service carrier (FSC) airline. A total of 394 responses were used for data analysis. As a result of this research, it was found that family role, friend role, community role, and job role, which are sub - factors of multi - role commitment of married female flight attendant have significant influence on emotional labor. In addition, the role of community and job role only had a significant effect on job performance in relation to multiple role commitment and job performance. In the relationship between emotional labor and job performance, deep acting of emotional labor affects job performance. In the mediating effect of emotional labor, emotional labor acts as a parameter in the relationship between family role and job performance. Other friends, community, and job roles did not have mediating effects. In the moderating effect of psychological well-being, the psychological well-being was shown to have a significant moderating effect only in the relationship between the roles of multiple roles and emotional labor, and the results of the other family, friends and community roles were not significant.

Key words: Married female flight attendants, Multiple roles commitment, Emotional labor, Job performance, Psychological well-being

I. Introduction

Changes in women's values and an increase in female participation are two of the main characteristics of today's labor market (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). This increase in women's economic participation has led to a more prominent role for them in household economics and an increase in the number of dual-income couples (McElwain, Korabik & Rosin, 2005). With that being the case, a consensus is forming within society that the direct and effective use of the female labor force is a path to corporate and national competitiveness. This highlights the importance of women performing multiple roles within the South Korean society, and their performance of those multiple roles is a universal phenomenon as well as a new task among married working women (Betz, 2006). However, from the married female worker's perspective, although they can pursue economic benefits through economic participation, conflicts between their roles in their families and at work have become their worry as well as a reason for quitting their jobs (Sirgy & Lee, 2018). In addition, the stress that comes with that role-related conflict has been shown to endanger women's mental health and to affect their work life (Fitzgerald, Fassinger & Betz, 1995). Similarly, many studies have focused on the negative aspects of such roles for married working women (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Folkman et al., 1986; Frona, Russell & Cooper, 1992). On the other hand, recent sociopsychological studies on the multiple roles of

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working women have begun to reveal the positive aspects of these women's multiple roles (Carson et al., 2006; Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Ruderman et al., 2002; Rothbard, 2001). Past studies have asserted that the multiple roles taken on by working women is a privilege for women that can lead to benefits in other areas. Moreover, these roles are said to lead to an expansion of their self-conception and an increase in satisfaction, which in turn creates psychological benefits and positive experiences. In other words, their performance of multiple roles can create positive emotions and psychological well-being, which can be positively applied at the organizational level.

There are limits to adopting policies to ease the stresses of an organization's employees by improving the organization's working conditions. Improving the psychological competence of employees so that they can maintain positive emotions on their own in whatever environment is a factor that is more important than changing the working conditions of employees (Ryff, 1989). The organization must become an assistant to its employees so that they can possess this internal ability that will allow them to recover from any situation on their own (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). If an employee at the service point of contact is in a state of insecurity, that will make it difficult for that employee to appropriately respond and understand the customer's desires, which can negatively affect customer satisfaction and service outcomes. Also, optimistic people with high life satisfaction not only have a high disposition toward gratitude (McCullough Emmons & Tsang, 2002), their ability to positively interpret a negative situation they encounter also gives them the will to overcome such situations (Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2006). Therefore, managers of businesses can assume the importance of the psychological well-being of an employee at a service point of contact while carrying out multiple roles and emotional labor. In addition, discovering factors that will improve it is an important task for them from an internal marketing perspective.

This study aims to expand on and explain from a positive perspective the multiple roles of married females working as airline crew members. The academic value of this study is predicted to come from its analysis of emotional labor's mediating effect in the relationship between commitment to multiple roles and work outcomes, and its view of emotional labor from the positive psychological perspective rather than the negative perspectives of existing studies. From there, the study seeks to find the balancing point between the multiple roles taken on by married female airline crew members from a human resource management level in order to minimize conflicts that may arise from their multiple roles and to determine strategies for creating a positive perspective on life within those multiple roles. Moreover, this study will provide an understanding of the influential relationship between the multiple roles of married female cabin crew members and work outcomes and find a way to positively utilize emotional labor in that relationship for the effective promotion of work outcomes.

II. Literature review

1. Multiple-role commitment

The various roles of human life are the tasks that both men and women need, but historically they have been dealt with mainly in the study of women's lives and career development processes. For this reason, the role of traditional women (e. g. housewives & mothers) has had a negative impact on the willingness to achieve in the course of women's career choices and adaptation (Fitzgerald et al., 1995). Traditionally, women are more likely to be exposed to multiple role stresses in the family and work life because women are given primary responsibility for the family rather than men. Also, women tend to limit their career aspirations themselves for home and child care, but men are less likely to make such compromises than women (Tharenou, Latimer & Conroy, 1994). Therefore, if a married woman with a child has a role in the workplace, she would run out of energy (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). However, recent studies on multiple roles have published positive outcomes that multiple roles have more positive impacts than negative ones (Ruderman et al., 2002; Sirgy & Lee, 2018). In other words, recent studies reveal that experience and skill gained through women's opportunities to expend their roles in the workplace, family, and society can as a facilitator for family-work life flexibility. Thus, scholars argue that the balance of the work-family should focus on increasing work-family improvement as well as on the point of conflict (Sirgy & Lee, 2018). As the social status of women increases with the rise of women's social status, the roles of married women are diversified to include multiple roles such as religious roles, social activities, community members, and friendships (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Ruderman et al., 2002). Based on the classification of multiple roles defined in Ruderman et al., (2002), this study defines the multiple roles of work, family, friends, and community as extended concepts in the roles of multiple role commitment. Therefore, it is being studied from a concept that is extended from work-home role to multiple role. In this study, we want to study multiple role community rather than the existing work-home role by recognizing the need for married women 's multiple roles.

2. Emotional labor

The concept of emotional labor was first proposed by Hochschild (1983). She regarded the expressed individual 's feelings as no longer included in the categories of private activities and saw the organization's emotional management as a transition of individual 's emotional expression. Schaubroeck and Jones (2000) found that emotional labor is related to situational factors that appear in interaction with customers in jobs. In other words, emotional labor is an experience of suppressing the negative emotions of positive emotions and expressing negative emotions of the organizational members for job performance. This emotional labor has a significant effect on customer service and job performance. In additional, Chu , Baker and Murrmann (2012) argued that the extent to which internal emotions or external behaviors are manipulated to express emotions in accordance with organizational expression rules is called emotional labor. This study examines the relationship between emotional labor and multi-role commitment of married female airline crew by reviewing the surface acting and deep acting of emotional labor. Women beings overcome environmental constraints by performing multiple roles in their lives, thereby gaining confidence, fulfillment, and satisfaction with their abilities (Sirgy & Lee, 2018). women's roles generate positive emotions and high performances by generating beneficial resources (skills and perspectives, resilience, psychological, physiological, material and social resources) related to other roles (Greenhaus & powell, 2006). In relation to this theory of role accumulation, multiple roles in women 's lives are positively affected in the area of psychological well-being and organization related to job (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999), and job and personal roles resulting from multiple roles are mutually beneficial, it can have a beneficial effect on the psychological state (Barnett, 1998). In line with the literature review, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H_1: Multiple-role commitment of married airline crews are positively related to surface acting.

H_2: Multiple-role commitment of married airline crews are positively related to deep acting.

3. Job performance

Job performance is used as a measure of effectiveness in organizational management, but it is often replaced by achievement process, productivity, commitment, cohesion, and attachment because of conceptual ambiguity. Job performance has been used to refer to the degree to which an organization's job has been successfully achieved. it is generally equivalent to the meaning of productivity as stated by industrial psychologists (Pincus. 1986). In the previous studies on job performance, it is necessary to categorize the results in terms of performance within the role and performance outside the role (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). For this reason, existing job performance measures are confined to job activities themselves, and they neglect voluntary activities such as job proposals and organizational citizenship behaviors that are necessary to achieve organizational goals. In this regard, Organ (1994) notes that many behaviors of organizational members are not considered job performance. Thus, it is important to include out-of-role performance, which is required to achieve the organization's goals, into the concept of job performance. Social interaction between customer and service staff has an important effect on customer satisfaction and corporate performance for service quality evaluation in the service delivery process (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Employee feelings should not be managed by individual employee feelings. Their feelings are part of the job and should be managed at the organization level. In the emotional labor strategy, surface acting negatively affects an individual’s physical and psychological health and customer's reaction, but deep acting positively affects not only the health of the service staff but also the evaluation and reaction perceived by the customer (Liu , Perrewé & Ferriset, 2008). The positive emotional expression of employees in the service organization has a positive effect on job commitment (Adelmann & Jajonc, 1989). Also, the negative emotions of the member of the organization may cause the organization’s anti-productive behavior, but positive emotions cause organizational citizenship behavior (Miles et al., 2002). So, positive emotions have a positive effect on behaviors with other members of the organization such as consideration, cooperation, etc. (Borman et al., 2001). Therefore, the experience of airline cabin female crews in emotional labor will increase the likelihood of carrying out behaviors such as customer-oriented behavior and organizational citizenship behavior, which can be directly attributed to job performance. In line with the literature review, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H_3: Multiple-role commitment of married airline crews are positively related to job performance.

H_4: Emotional labor of married airline crews are positively related to job performance.

4. Phycological well-being

The concept of psychological well-being is similar to the concept of happiness or welfare, but it is difficult to define clearly because the meaning changes according to people, time, and place. Which began in the 1960 's, a study of psychological well-being was mainly dealt with from the negative point of view such as unhappiness and stress (Thoits, 1983). Since then, people became aware that economic things are not the only determinants of human happiness with the rapid development of the economy in the early 1970s. As a result, psychological well-being research positively began. Psychological well-being means accepting oneself positively, forming a relationship with others who have confidence, and making autonomous decisions and actions in accordance with the principles and standards set by them (Ryff, 1989). The psychological well-being felt by the employees working at the service contact affects the individual's life and customer's attitude, sales performance, and customer satisfaction. A psychologically comfortable and well-being employee act to help or benefit others (McCullough et al., 2002). The happier the marriage is better the role balance between work and home, more equitable the distribution of work to home and work (Milkie & Peltola, 1999). Satisfaction with family life and work life is very important in assessing their overall psychological well-being. An individual's desire is a factor that affects psychological well-being and has a direct effect on the evaluation of psychological well-being as well as the objective individual characteristics (Malley & Stewart, 1988). It is important to note that people with high levels of life satisfaction and psychological well-being have high self-esteem, and they attach importance to individual characteristics such as commitment to work and leisure activities, purpose and hope (Diener et al., 1999). Therefore, the psychological well-being felt by the employees working at the service contact affects the individual's life and customer's attitude, sales performance, and customer satisfaction. A psychologically comfortable and well-off employee act to help or benefit others (McCullough et al. 2002). In addition, psychological well-being is affected trust and respect with colleagues working together, and positive relationships with their members and superiors in the organization (Edmonson, 2004). In line with the literature review, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H_5: Psychological well-being significantly moderates the relationship between Multiple-role commitment and emotional labor.

III. Methodology

1. Measures and questionnaire development

The online and offline questionnaire included three major section. The first part included characteristics of multiple role commitment specific questions, such as, marriage period, number of children, age of youngest child, family living together, circle and social participation and form, and attending friends/relatives. The second part of the survey concluded with demographic information. The third part was devoted to conceptual model constructs: multiple role commitment, emotional labor, job performance, and Psychological well-being. The measurement scales were based on the literature. Multiple role commitment was assessed with twelve items adopted from in Ruderman et al., (2002); emotional labor was assessed with six items adopted from in Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005), Kruml and Geddes(2000); job performance was assessed with three items from in Babin and Boles(1996); and finally, psychological well-being was assessed with four items in Ryff(1989). A five-point Likert scale was used for all the measurement items that were evaluated with a 5-point scale from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5).

2. Sample and data collection

Data for this study was collected using an online and offline questionnaire. In order to collect the data, a field survey was conducted at airlines located in Korea (Korea Air, ASIAN AIRLINES) between August 1st and September 31th, 2016. The population of this study was conducted for married female crew members currently working in the Korean nationality airlines. In this study, I chose these two airlines because of Korean Airline and Asian Airline ranked first and second in the National Customer Satisfaction Index (NCSI). In additional to these two major national airlines, domestic low-cost airlines (LCCs) are very different from full-service carries (FSC) in terms of company size, position system, working patterns, in-flight services and organizational atmosphere. We excluded from the population. In addition, the questionnaire was distributed to only the team members performing international flights, because the nature of the national airline reflects the fact that the personnel composition of the international flight crew team is distributed evenly over the service years and positions. The actual field survey explained the purpose and purpose of the study to the team leader of the team conducting the international flight. The team leader distributed questionnaires directly to team members at the pre-flight briefing time, collecting the questionnaires at the end of the flight and distributing questionnaires directly to the crew members. A total of 402 available responses were collected through this process by deploying 420 questionnaires. The final sample size of this research was 394 cases, excluding 8 unfaithful survey.

IV. Results

1. Descriptive statistic

Among 394 respondents, between 20 and 30 years old (49.2%) was the most common age in airline crew and next common age was between 30 and 40 years old (34.6%). Thus, more than 80% of airline crew was between 20-40 years old. The result of the survey of Korean national carriers, the respondents were quite evenly distributed regarding. Korea airline accounted for 43.1% and Asian airline accounted for 55.9%. Approximately 77.4% of respondents reported that their education level is bachelor degree, followed by collage degree (16.0%), and graduate degree and over (6.6%). And 49.5% of airline crew's income was less than 3,000,000 won. The income of next most frequent was between 3,000,000 won and 4,000,000 won (34.0%), between 4,000,000 won and 5,000,000 won (12.4%) and over 5,000,000 won (4.1%). Crew position, with the largest respondent group (54.1%) reporting Stewardess, followed by senior crew (23.3%), manager and over (12.4%), and manager (10.2%).

2. Reliability and validity assessments and confirmatory factor analysis

The measurement model was generated by conducting a confirmation factory analysis (CFA) to check the four dimensionality of the measurement scales and to further validate the proposed measurement model. A maximum likelihood estimation approach was used for the analysis. The model was shown to fit to data satisfactorily (Goodness-of-fit statistics for the acceptable model: χ^2=320.226, df=168, p <.01, χ^2/df=1.313, GFI=.929, AGFI=.903, TLI=.966, CFI= .973, RMR=.03, RMSEA=.048). the TLI, GFI, and CFI values close to 1.00 demonstrate a good model fit (Byrne, 1998). The RESEA value should range between .04 and .08 (Turner & Reisinger, 2001).

Table 1 shows the specific elements of family role, friends role, community role, work role, surface acting, deep acting, psychological well-being, and job performance in this study, as well as their standardized factor loading values. Composite reliability for study constructs was calculated. The factor loading values were equal to or higher than .576 and statistically significant at p < .01, while their t-value ranged from 12.762 to 21.323. Values of composite reliability (CR) ranged from .836 to .984. These values of acceded Bagozzi and Yi's (1998) suggested cutoff .60. Therefore, an internal consistency of the items for each construct was evident. Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics output and associated measures of the given concepts. The convergent validity and dis-criminate validity of measurement scales were verified (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). All the factor loading on the proposed constructs were statistically significant at p < .01. The average variance extracted (AVE) was higher than the .50 cutoff value for all constructs intended measurement items and AVE estimates, the scale items achieved convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). the values ranged from .633 to .769. In order to ensure discriminant validity, the squared correlation value (R^2) between a pair of concepts should be lower than the AVE value of the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All of the squared correction values (R^2) were lower than the AVE value

Table 1. Results of confirmatory factor analysis and correlations

Construct and scale item		*Standardized loading*	*FAR*	*FRR*	*CR*	*WR*	*SA*	*DA*	*JP*	*AVE (CR)*	*Mean (SD)*
FAR	FAR1 FAR2 FAR3	.673 .862 .907	1.000							.656 (.849)	3.718 (.617)
FRR	FRR1 FRR2 FRR3	.773 .576 .773	.500[a] (.496)[b]	1.000	-	-	-	-	-	.633 (.836)	3.339 (.752)
CR	CR1 CR2 CR3	.839 .857 .855	.506[a] (.476)[b]	.519[a] (.537)[b]	1.000	-	-	-	-	.769 (.909)	3.264 (.578)
WR1	WR1 WR2 WR3	.803 .790 .823	.432[a] (.438)[b]	.474[a] (.379)[b]	.712[a] (.274)[b]	1.000	-	-	-	.663 (.855)	3.002 (.619)
SA	SA1 SA2 SA3	.776 .905 .760	.523[a] (.517)[b]	.530[a] (.477)[b]	.692[a] (.281)[b]	.666[a] (.187)[b]	1.000	-	-	.680 (.864)	3.442 (.813)
DA	DA1 DA2 DA3	.852 .828 .822	.495[a] (.208)[b]	.502[a] (.252)[b]	.691[a] (.479)[b]	.616[a] (.225)[b]	.733[a] (.256)[b]	1.000	-	.738 (.984)	3.653 (.598)
JP	JP1 JP2 JP3	.914 .893 .662	.469[a] (.220)[b]	.456[a] (.245)[b]	.719[a] (.444)[b]	.662[a] (.507)[b]	.690[a] (.269)[b]	.704[a] (.250)[b]	1.000	.677 (.860)	3.339 (.596)

Note 1: FAR=family role, FRR=friends role, CR=community role, WR=work role, SA=surface acting, DA=deep acting, JP=job performance, AVE=average variance extracted, CR=composite reliability, SD=standard deviation.

Note 2: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the measurement model: χ^2=320.226, df=168, p<.001, χ^2/df=1.311, GFI=.929, AGFI=.903, TLI=.966, CFI=.973, RMR=.031, RMSEA=.048.

[a] Correlations between variables are below the diagonal

[b] Squared correlation between variables are parentheses

3. Research hypothesis testing and structural equation modeling

A structural model was generated by using a maximum likelihood estimated method. The structural equation model was shown to adequately fit to the data (Goodness-of-fit statistics for the structural model: χ^2=361.459, df=169, p<.001, χ^2/df=2.139, GFI=.920, AGFI=.891, TLI=.957, CFI=.966, RMR=.035, RMSEA=.054). The structural modeling results and hypothesis testing results are showed in Table 1. and Fig. 1. The hypothesized impact of married female flight attendant's multiple-role commitment on emotional labor and job performance was assessed. As expected, the proposed influence multiple role commitment (family role, friends role, community role, work role) on surface acting were evaluated. The result of estimation indicated that on surface acting of positive and significant of family role (β=.042, p < .01), friends role (β=.061, p < .05), community role (β=.086, p < .01), work role (β=.079, p < .01). Thus, H_{1a}, H_{1b}, H_{1c}, and H_{1d} were all supported. The proposed influence multiple role commitment (family role, friends role, community role, work role) on deep acting were evaluated. The result of estimation indicated that on deep acting of positive and significant of family role (β=.043, p <.05), friends role (β=.062, p < .05), community role (β =.088, p < .01), and work role (β=.079, p < .01). Hence, H_{2a}, H_{2b}, H_{2c}, and H_{2d} were all supported. The relationship between family role and job performance was not significant (β=.052, p>.05), and the relationship between friends role and job performance was not significant (β=.076, p>.05), thus H_{2a} and H_{2b} were not supported. However, the relationship between community role and job performance was positively and significantly associated (β=.112, p<.01) and the relationship between work role and job performance was positively and significantly associated (β=.104, p <.05), thus H_{2c} and H_{2d} were supported. The proposed emotional labor (surface acting and deep acting) on job performance were evaluated. The result of evaluation showed that the job performance of surface acting was not significant (β=.101, p > .05), but job performance of deep acting was positive and significant of family role (β=.096, p < .01). Therefore, H_{3a} was not supported and H_{3b} was supported.

4. Moderating hypotheses assessment and test for metric invariance

To evaluate the proposed moderating impact of environmental concern, a test for the metric variance was

Table 2. Standard parameter for structural model

Paths	*Coefficients*	*t-values*	*Hypothesis*
FAR → SA	.042	2.685**	Supported
FRR → SA	.061	2.542*	Supported
CR → SA	.086	3.224**	Supported
WR → SA	.079	4.495**	Supported
FAR → DA	.043	2.459*	Supported
FRR → DA	.062	1.998*	Supported
CR → DA	.088	4.361**	Supported
WR → DA	.079	3.012**	Supported
FAR → JP	.052	.433	Not supported
FRR→ JP	.076	-.479	Not supported
CR→ JP	.112	3.330**	Supported
WR → JP	.104	2.395*	Supported
SA → JP	.101	1.674	Not supported
DA → JP	.096	3.960**	Supported

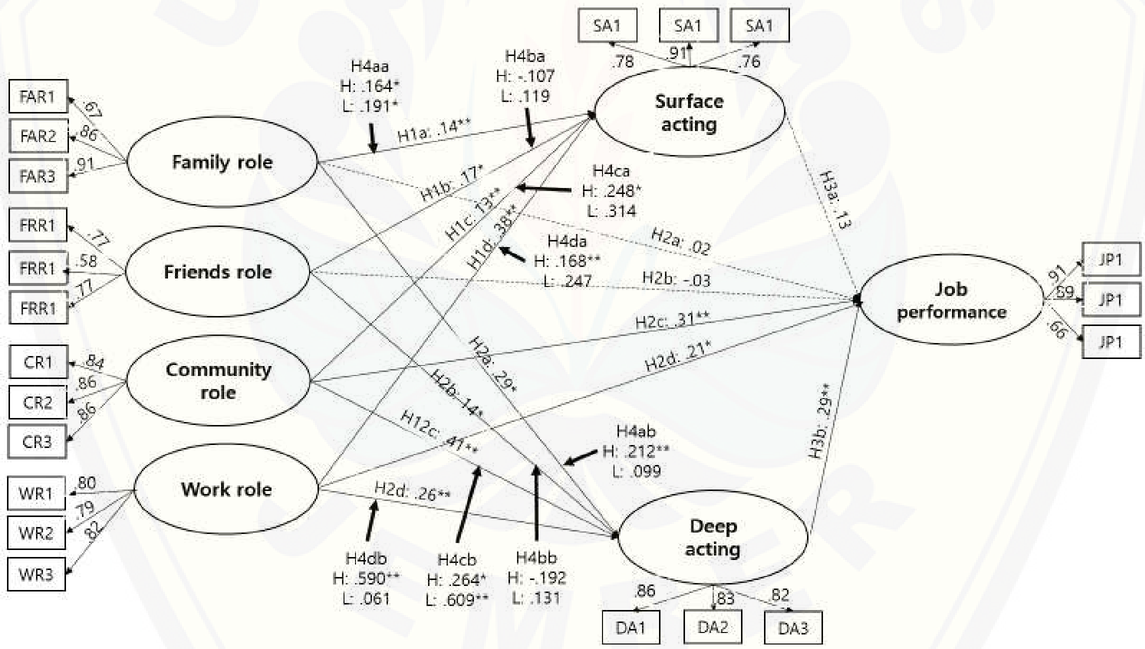
Note 1: FAR=family role, FRR=friends role, CR=community role, WR=work role, EL=emotional labor, SA=surface acting, DA=deep acting, JP=job performance, PWB: psychological well-being

Note 2: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the structural model: χ^2=361.459, df=169, p<.001, χ^2/df=2.139, GFI=.920, AGFI=.891, TLI=.957, CFI=.966, RMR=.035, RMSEA=.054, *p<.05, **p<.01

Table 3. The result of the moderating effect

Paths	High PWB group		Low PWB group		Baseline model	Nested motel	Chi-square difference	Test result
	Coefficients	t-values	Coefficients	t-values				
H_{4a}: FAR→SA	.164	2.245*	.191	2.321*	$\chi^2(338)$ =608.409	$\chi^2(339)$ =608.450	.041	Not supported
H_{4b}: FRR→SA	-.107		.119		$\chi^2(338)$= 608.409	$\chi^2(339)$= 610.643	2.234	Not supported
H_{4c}: CR → SA	.248	2.456*	.314		$\chi^2(338)$= 608.409	$\chi^2(339)$= 608.428	.019	Not supported
H_{4d}: WR→ SA	.668	5.335**	247		$\chi^2(338)$= 608.409	$\chi^2(339)$= 613.384	4.975	Supported
H_{4e}: FA → DA	.212	2.621**	.099		$\chi^2(338)$= 608.409	$\chi^2(339)$= 609.454	1.045	Not supported
H_{4f}: FRR→DA	-.192		.131		$\chi^2(338)$= 608.409	$\chi^2(339)$= 609.451	1.042	Not supported
H_{4g}: CR→ DA	.264	2.386**	.609	3.349**	$\chi^2(338)$= 608.409	$\chi^2(339)$= 609.812	1.403	Not supported
H_{4h}: WR→DA	.590	4.553**	.061		$\chi^2(338)$= 608.409	$\chi^2(339)$= 615.424	7.015	Supported

Note: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the baseline model: χ^2=608.409, df=338, p<.001, χ^2/df=, GFI=.894, AGFI=.878, TLI=.926, RMR=.029, RMSEA=.045; *p<.05, **p<.01



Note 1: FAR=family role, FRR=friends role, CR=community role, WR=work role, SA=surface acting, DA=deep acting, JP=job performance, PWB: psychological well-being

Note 2: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the structural model: χ^2=361.459, df=169, p<.001, χ^2/df=2.139, GFI=.920, AGFI=.891, TLI=.957, CFI=.966, RMR=.035, RMSEA=0.054

Note 3: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the baseline model: χ^2=608.409, df=338, p<.001, χ^2/df=1.800, GFI=.894, AGFI=.878, TLI=.926, RMR=.029, RMSEA=0.045

Note 4: Two identical structural models were evaluated (models for high [n=193] and low [n=201] psychological well-being concern groups)

Figure 1. Structural equation model estimation and test for structural metric invariance

conducted. All surveys responses were initially split into high(n=193), and low(n=201) psychological well-being concern groups by using the K-means cluster analysis. Next, a baseline model was generated. The baseline model was shown to fit to a data adequately (Goodness-of-fit statistics for the baseline model: χ^2=608.409, df=338, p<.001, χ^2/df=1.800, GFI=.894, AGFI=.878, TLI=.926, RMR=.029, RMSEA=.045). The details related to the metric invariance test are exhibited in Table 2 and Fig. 1. Employing a chi-square test, the generated baseline model was compares to nested models where one specific link of the model is restricted to be equal between high and low psychological well-being concern groups. The results from the invariance assessment and chi-square test revealed that the path from FAR to SA was not significantly different groups ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = .041$, $p > .05$). H_{4a} was not supported. The finding of this study also indicated that there was no significant difference on FAR to DA ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 1.045$, $p > .05$), thus H_{4e} was not supported. The path from FRR to SA was not significantly different groups ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 2.234$, $p > .05$), thus H_{4b} was not supported. Also, it was identified that FRR - DA link was different significantly between groups ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 1.042$, $p > .05$), thus H_{4f} was not supported. In additional, the path from CR to SA was not significantly different groups ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = .019$, $p > .05$), thus H_{4c} was not supported. Also, it was identified that CR - DA link was different significantly between groups ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 1.403$, $p > .05$), thus H_{4g} was not supported. Lastly, results showed that the relationship between WR and SR differed significantly across the high and low groups ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 613.384$, $p < .05$), thus H_{4d} was supported. Also, the relationship between WR and Dr differed significantly across the high and low groups ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 615.414$, $p < .05$), thus H_{4h} was supported.

V. Conclusion and implications

This study examined the multiple roles taken on by married female airline cabin crew members from a positive rather than a conflict-centered, negative perspective. Unlike existing negative studies that centered on conflicts derived from the multiple roles of married working women, this study sought to understand the multiple roles of women from a different perspective. In addition, this study sought to demonstrate the positive influence of the multiple roles of married women on other areas, which can be translated to the work dimension and to a positive influence on emotional labor, which is one of the primary roles at work, and work performance. Also, the study examined whether psychological well-being has a regulating effect in the relationship between taking on multiple roles and emotional labor. Through this examination, this study confirmed the importance of the multiple roles taken on by married female airline cabin crew members and sought methods for improving work outcomes as well as for creating positive emotional labor through commitment to multiple roles. Additionally, this study ultimately sought to find the balancing point for the performance of various roles by female airline cabin crew members, which assists in creating methods for an effective human resources management within the cabin crew and in improving work outcomes.

1. Theoretical implications

The scope and type of social participation by women have expanded and become diverse, so research must be expanded to include not just the two roles in work and family that have been taken on by married female airline cabin crew members researched by existing studies, but also the multiple roles taken on by all married women. This study is the first to expand the roles of married women to family, friend, community, and work roles within the field of airline cabin research. Also, existing studies on the multiple roles of women have been shadowed by their conflict-based negative perspective and neglected the possibility of positive outcomes from taking on multiple roles. Therefore, the importance and need for studies on the multiple roles of married women, and investigated the various areas of the concept and factors of multiple roles that have not been studied by airline cabin organizations. Most of this study's value is derived from its positive results on multiple roles based on existing theories and hypotheses.

Furthermore, after examining the regulating effect of psychological well-being within the relationship between commitment to multiple roles and emotional labor, psychological well-being only had a regulating effect in the relationship between work roles and emotional labor. In other words, the stronger the psychological well-being, the stronger the positive effect will be on work roles and performance of emotional labor. Also, people with high life satisfaction or strong psychological well-being have high self-esteem and value support networks, involvement in work and leisure activities, and individual characteristics such as goals and hopes (Diener et al., 1999). The higher an individual's work adaptability, the higher the work satisfaction and happiness (Fort, Jacquet & Leroy, 2011). In addition, psychological well-being has a positive effect on organizational commitment, and from an achievement perspective helps create a high level of performance (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). In other words, in the area of work, role performance takes up a large portion of life and is a determinative factor for happiness. The academic implication of this study's investigation into the importance of positive feelings and the moderating effect of psychological well-being in the relationship between multiple roles and emotional labor will assist in the development of future studies in the field.

2. Practical implications

The family, friend, community, and work roles that comprise the multiple roles of married female airline cabin crew members have each been shown to affect the superficial and inner behaviors of emotional labor. These results is same as the existing studies(Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Ruderman et al., 2002; Frone, 2003). In other words, contrary to existing results that show that the commitment of organizational members to roles outside work increases stress and decreases work commitment and productivity, this study's results demonstrate a pressing need for businesses to change their negative perspectives. Therefore, airlines should not only emphasize the roles of married female cabin crew members while at work, but also should seek methods of providing opportunities at the organizational level for those members to create a harmonious community life parallel to their work lives, such as by operating organization-wide groups or gatherings.

Also, within the emotional labor of married female airline cabin crew members, their internal behaviors demonstrated a significant effect on work outcomes. Thus, instead of creating superficial behaviors through education, experienced married female cabin crew members must induce internal behaviors that strengthen job satisfaction and positive emotions. Recently, news stories like the one on the "nut rage" incident have come to the forefront. They highlight the importance of emotional labor and calls for changing the rules for limiting extreme emotional labor are becoming part of the issues of crew cabin human resources. During discussions at the Korea Labor and Society Institute, there were also calls to reexamine the rules in the cabin crew member manual related to maintaining emotional labor. For example, requiring cabin crew members to get on their knees and apologize when problems arise with a passenger or maintain a courteous attitude when physically attacked is a violation of human rights and has crucial effects on physical and mental health. Looking at the changes in the social consciousness and the results of this study, extreme and superficial emotional labor at airlines do not provide positive effects on not only work outcomes and human resources management, but also do not on the business's image. Therefore, in order to create the positive effects of emotional labor, which has been called the third labor and is becoming more and more important, and to effectively apply emotional labor to work outcomes, strong laws and systems by governments and businesses for the emotional labor of cabin crew members and the safeguarding of human rights must be quickly and firmly established. In addition, when insults and swears are socially directed toward emotional laborers, there must be a multilateral call for stronger punishments against the perpetrators.

Additionally, only work roles demonstrated a regulating effect in the relationship between commitment to multiple roles and emotional labor. These results is same as the existing studies(Diener et al., 1999; George & Brief, 2002; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; McCullough et al., 2002). These results can be interpreted as demonstrating the importance of psychological well-being in the emotional labor of married female airline cabin crew members and that positive emotions while performing one's work duties lead to thinking, behaving positively no matter the problem faced, and positively reacting to customers and fellow cabin crew members. Therefore, airline companies must not demand emotions from cabin crew members through education using one-dimensional organizational rules but approach the issue from a wider perspective. To accomplish this, companies must adopt family-friendly policies and systems to reduce conflicts within multiple roles and provide direct support through organizational-level systems and programs to allow employees to achieve a balance among their multiple roles.

As shown in the results, community roles have a positive effect on work outcomes, so employees should often be invited to join small-group gatherings within the organization. This method facilitates cabin crew members getting to know each other and the boosting of psychological support, which can ultimately lead to higher work outcomes at the organizational level. Also, supporting the multiple roles of female cabin crew members by creating organization-wide programs such as flexible flight schedules for special families and operating a nursery for children of domestic cabin crew members are shown to be necessary. Moreover, in order to solve problems related to difficulties and conflicts experienced by cabin crew members who are returning to work after just having given birth, creating online lectures from more experienced cabin crew members who have gone through pregnancies can ease the insecurities related to returning to work and the psychological conflicts and burdens after birth. This would also prevent birth- and child rearing-related conflicts, career interruptions, and resignations after the post-birth reinstatement of married female cabin crew members. Compared to homemaking mothers, working mothers who take on multiple roles recognize higher subjective well-being, which has an important effect on physical and mental health (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). In addition, each role is not independent or contradictory to each other but are mutual catalysts to each other (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Lastly, the more female economic activity a nation has, the higher that nation's birth-rate is. By taking on multiple roles, women increase their own resources, which leads to positive outcomes at work.

3. Limitations and future research directions

This study investigated the relationship between female airline cabin crew members' commitment to multiple roles, emotional labor, and work outcomes in accordance with the increasing rate of female social participation and expansion of their roles within society. It then analyzed the differences in the relationship between commitment to multiple roles and emotional labor based on varying degrees of psychological well-being and proposed academic and practical viewpoints. The value of this study lies in the fact that it is the first study to examine the commitment to multiple roles by married female airline cabin crew members from a positive perspective, but since it is in its beginning stages it has its limitations. There is a need for a few types of complementary future studies. First, this study defined commitment to multiple roles as the desire to willingly carry out one's general attitudes, interests, and will according to the psychological behavior norms that are set in place based on that individual's place and status, whether it be at work or outside work, such as within a family, among friends, and in a community. Based on this definition, measurement items related to commitment to multiple roles or items measuring the degree of will to carry out particular roles were written in the future tense. This measures a person's own interests and expectations, but may not be appropriate in precisely measuring one's current efforts. Therefore, changing these measurement items in the survey to present tense could allow for a more accurate measurement of current efforts. So, future studies need to attempt a systematic tense shift for the measurement items. In addition, creating positive effectiveness through commitment to multiple roles can bring about very different results based on an individual's tendencies. Also, the age and marital status of female cabin crew members can create different roles. Moreover, since the positive effects of married female cabin crew members' commitment to multiple roles have been confirmed, if future studies can specifically research the factors that create positive transfers, it will have objective and reliable implications and contribute to the advancement of follow-up studies. Therefore, future studies on these variables and studies that apply demographic variables must be more in-depth and wider.

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Chain restaurant brand and patrons' post-purchase behaviors in the steakhouse context*

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Abstract

In spite of the emerging tough competitions and the recognized importance of loyalty in restaurant industry, little research has examined the role of attitude, brand awareness, brand experience, and attachment in explicating customer post purchase behavior. In this regard, this research attempted to make an empirical effort to examine the role of attitude toward the brand, awareness of the brand, and brand experience in building customer loyalty by taking into account the moderating effect of attachment to the brand for a chain steakhouse brand . Employing a filed survey method, we utilized the quantitative analytic approach for the research purpose. A proposed conceptual framework comprising study variables was successfully developed and tested. As results, this research showed that attitude toward the brand and awareness of the brand are the important drivers of customer loyalty among the constructs we tested. In addition, attachment of brand played a crucial moderating role in the relationship between attitude and customer loyalty. Overall, our findings significantly enhanced our understanding of these variables and their role in customer loyalty formation for the steakhouse brand in theoretical implications. In pragmatic standpoints, practitioners as well as operators will be able to have clearer comprehensions to enhance level of customer loyalty in the chain steakhouse industry in which the competition is growing.

Key words: Chain restaurant brand, Post-purchase behavior, Steakhouse, Attachment to the brand

I. Introduction

The market place within the restaurant industry has become overly saturated, and hence consumers are offered with too many choices and price scales, some of which are "collapsing into each other" making it hard for brands to differentiate themselves (Marketing Week, 2015). Subsequently, all organizations are currently coping with one same frustrating challenge keeping the customers loyal to their brand. In the context of steakhouse chains, various noble brands are already present in the market such as Outback

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Steakhouse, LongHorn Steakhouse, Texas Roadhouse, Longan's Roadhouse, Ruth's Chris Steak House and Morton's The Steakhouse. At the same time, these brands are mostly competing for customers with a wide array of casual-dining restaurant chains that do not focus primarily on steak, notably Chili's or Buffalo Wild Wings (Market Realist, 2015). Consequently, restaurant marketers are constantly looking into new and innovative ways to enhance the customer experience and subsequently loyalty to certain brands.

The present research was designed to explore the formation of customer loyalty for the chain restaurant brand (particularly for the steakhouse brand). Specifically, this research attempted to uncover the role of attitude toward the brand, awareness of the brand, and brand experiences in building customer loyalty in the name-brand steakhouse sector. In addition, we aimed to identify if the relationship among these variables is under the significant influence of attachment to the brand. In the following section, a thorough literature review comprising explications of study constructs and hypotheses development is presented. Next, the research methodology utilized to achieve study objectives is discussed. Then results and empirical findings of statistical analyses are articulated. Subsequently, discussions and implications of the study are offered, and limitations and recommendations for future research are stated. Finally, a conclusion is provided.

II. Literature review

1. Name-brand steakhouse

Due to its robust global growth, researchers in restaurant sector have started using steakhouse chains as a specific context for their studies. Service quality is one of the prominent aspects in studies examining chain steakhouses. In particular, a series of study focusing on service quality assessment based on customer's perceptions and expectations (also known as the service gaps) in a steakhouse chain in Taiwan were conducted by Chang and Annaraud (2008) and Chang (2009). Recently, studies examining branding strategy for chain steakhouse have captured the attention of restaurant academicians. For example, the very first study on chain steakhouses essentially investigated the role of restaurant's space on customer's perceptions towards the restaurant cultural image using the case of Outback Steakhouse (Wood & Munoz, 2007). Evidently, chain steakhouse remains an untapped, yet a distinctively valuable study setting, particularly when investigating branding strategy due to its global growth.

Outback Steakhouse was selected as a research object for this study. Outback is a proper for current study because it has been recognized as one of the typical steakhouse restaurants in terms of size and brand awareness. It is an Australian themed American steakhouse chain opened in 1988and has served with almost 1,000 stores in 23 countries in the world. In Korea more than 80 Outback Steakhouse stores have been in operation since 1997 (Steakhouse Korea, 2017). Outback was also selected the best steakhouse in the 2012 Zagat Survey of National Full-Service Restaurant Chains for the fourth consecutive year (PRNewswire, 2017).

2. Attitude toward the brand

Customer's attitudes towards an object stem from their limited cognitive processing abilities, which typically involve taking information about alternatives as inputs and forming and attitude as an output (Bettman, 1979, Taylor & Hunter, 2003). The essence of attitude places on categorizing the object along an evaluative dimension and coming up with a components of attitude, cognitive, affective and conation (Assael, 2004; MacKenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986; Wu & Wang, 2011). The cognitive elements refer to consumer's knowledge of the product, service and/or brand after integrating directly experiencing and/or attaining information of them. Affective components are consumer's emotional responses towards the product, service and/or brand, and lastly, conation is known as consumer's likelihood of acting or behaving in certain ways with regard to the brand. In association with brand context, definition of attitude was described by Mitchell and Olson (1981, p. 318) as "individual's internal evaluation of the brand." By extension, Spears and Singh (2004, 55p) elaborated the conceptualization as "attitude toward the brand is a relatively enduring, unidimensional summary evaluation of the brand that presumably energizes behavior". Studies regarding attitude with regard to the brand have not been vigorous in food service and tourism context. More recently, Ahn and Back (2018) conducted to study to discover attitude towards brand in cognitive, affective, and conative stages.

3. Awareness of the brand

According to Keller (1993), brand awareness is related to brand familiarity as brand familiarity increases through consistent exposure to a brand, the consumer can build better ability to recognize and recall the brand. More specifically, awareness of the brand is divided into four levels (Aaker, 2002). The bottom level is recognition, which involves consumers recognizing brand-specific elements like brand name or brand logo when being presented with. At the middle level, known as recall, consumers are able to remember the brand without being shown any elements beforehand. The other two levels at the top are "intensive brand awareness" (actively known brands appearing first in the awareness scale) and "exclusive brand awareness" (dominant brands having an exclusive position in consumer's memory). Building brands can be difficult in the service industry due to the intangible nature of services, which makes it hard to assess service quality (Keller, 2003; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). As decisions to purchase a service are frequently made away from the location where service is provided, the brand recall level is destined to be decisive and critical factors in service and online brand(Keller, 2003). In a recent study, Wang (2015) found the noteworthy impacts of food service-brand equity, including brand awareness and brand image, on perceived value, risk and brand preference. Additionally, brand image was tested in the relationship between service experience, perceived brand image, and frontline employees' clothing choice (Chang et al., 2015). An importance of brand awareness has been raised consistently in the service field. According to Mackay (2001)'s research results in bank service context, awareness of the brand indicated the highest correlation with the market share among ten measures of the brand equity. In a narrower scope in a hospitality and tourism context, various studies also revealed important roles of brand awareness in formation process of loyalty (Foroudi, 2019; Kim, Choe, & Petrick, 2018; Yang & Lau, 2019).

4. Brand experiences

Experience is defined as showing a high level of familiarity towards specific areas achieved through some type of exposure (Braunsberger & Munch, 1998). It is "a coalescing of symbolic meaning with allied behavior, thoughts and feelings happening during the product/service consumption" (Ha & Perks, 2005, p. 400). There are four main dimensions within brand experience: sensory, affective, intellectual, and behavioral dimensions. The sensory aspect is addressed as any visual, auditory, tactile, gustative, and olfactory impression that the brand wants their customers to experience. While affective involves customer's emotions and feelings induced by the brand, intellectual refers to the brand's ability to evoke customer's thinking and spark curiosity. Lastly, with behavioral dimensions, customers are always in a physically active state when using the brand such as bodily experiencing and interacting with the brand (Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010).

5. Customer loyalty

Customer loyalty is defined as "the degree of a consumer's emotional attachment to a brand and suggests that it has six dimensions: consumer willingness to repurchase, price premium, satisfaction rate, switching cost, preference over brand, and commitment to brand" (Aaker, 1991, p.25). Rowley (2005) proposed four types of loyalty: captive, convenience seekers, contented and committed. While captive consumers are those repeatedly purchasing a certain brand because of the lack of substitues, convenience-seekers are only loyal due to the convenience that comes along. Contented consumers have positive feelings and thoughts towards the brand, but they will not excessively consume it. Lastly, committed consumers are the most loyal ones reflecting in both their behaviors and attitudes. Various antecedents which can affect loyalty have been identified in service area. Recently, Kim et al (2019)'s study indicated that functional, hedonic, and financial values significantly affect loyalty in application to food service industry. Also, role of drivers on brand loyalty was identified by Han et al (2018) as cognitive and affective dimensions, aiming the chain coffee shop industry. In the research, all cognitive drivers as brand awareness, perceived quality, brand image, and perceived value had significant impact on pleasure which is one of the affective drivers, the next dimension of the model following the cognitive one.

6. Association among study variables

In the service context, due to the intangibility nature of the industry, service brands often become the sole quality marker for the consumers (e.g. McDonald across the globe are mostly trusted as a good value fast food brand), and they mostly develop a higher level of trust and loyalty towards brands they are more familiar with. In brief, in order to build trusted relationship between brands and customers and increase customer loyalty, it is essential for brands to consistently provide customers with adequate information and memorable experiences (awareness of the brand) for them to establish perception/evaluation (MacKenzie et al, 1986; Wu & Wang, 2011; Yoo & Donthu, 2001) and enduce emotions that can be quickly associated with the brand (attitude toward the brand) (Aaker, 2002; Keller, 2003; Taylor & Hunter, 2003). Recently, a research (Kim et al, 2018) indicated that festival awareness of brand had a positive impact on festival brand loyalty as well as Yun (2017)'s study revealed a significant relation between brand attitude and brand loyalty. In addition, increasing patrons' familarity level toward the brand is of importance to boost their trust and loyalty (brand experiences) (Braunsberger & Munch, 1998; Shankar et al., 2003). Notably, studies about online websites (Cleff, Walter, & Xi 2018; Ha & Perks, 2005; 1998; Shankar, Smith & Rangaswamy, 2003), it was discovered that web experiences offering users with web communities, chat, games and other meaningful events are likely to bolster their trust in the brand and loyalty for it. In product and customer dimensions, direct influence of brand experience on true brand loyalty was presented(Mathew & Thomas, 2018). In tourism sphere, a research of Ong, Lee, and Ramayah (2018) showed that four heterogeneous dimensions of a brand experience significantly impact on segmented constructs of a brand loyalty in a different manner.

H_1: Attitude toward the brand is positively related to customer loyalty.

H_2: Awareness of the brand is positively related to customer loyalty.

H_3: Brand experiences are positively related to customer loyalty

7. Attachment to the brand

Attachment to the brand reflects the strength of the bond between the brand and the consumer, demonstrated by a rich and easily accessed memory network consisting of thoughts and feelings of the brand and the brand's association with the self (Park et al., 2010). Attachment to the brand can be explained by two key concepts: brand self-connection and brand prominence. Whereas the former refers to the cognitive and emotional connection between the brand and the self (Chaplin & John, 2005; Escalas, 2004; Japutra, Ekinci, & Simkin, 2014), the latter shows the salience of brand self-connection via perceived ease and frequency of the brand occurring in consumers' minds (Park et al., 2010). Apparently, the emotion element is integral to both brand self-connection and brand prominence, which has led to most models measuring brand attachment based solely on emotion dimensions such as Thomson, MacInnis, and Park (2005)'s three-factor model including affection, passion and connection; and Rossiter and Bellman (2012)'s model with four dimensions being proposed, namely resonance, bonding, companionship, and love.

Researchers in previous studies agree that attachment to the brand is a crucial concept in explicating customer post-purchase decision-making process and the formation of customer loyalty (Han et al., 2018; Park et al., 2006; Thomson et al., 2005). For example, it is stated that having a strong emotional bond with the brand will make the consumer less susceptive to competitor's alternatives (switching behaviors), repeat purchases or experiences offered by the brand and also highly recommend others trying out that brand. As stated earlier, attachment to the brand is the emotional bond not easily broken once established due to the self-connection aspect that makes customers feel as if the brand is "their brand" and urges them to constantly to support the brand. For that matter, attachment to the brand acts as the strongest barrier against other competitors and new entrants when they are trying to win over these loyal customers (Brocato et al., 2015; Han et al., 2018). A sturdy attachment to the brand often encourages patrons to be a part of the brand with a strong of emotional energy, and it frequently results in strengthening customer loyalty formation (Park et al., 2006).

H_{4a}: The relationship between attitude toward the brand and customer loyalty is significantly moderated by attachment to the brand.

H_{4b}: The relationship between awareness of the brand and customer loyalty is significantly moderated by attachment to the brand.

H_{4c}: The relationship between brand experience and customer loyalty is significantly moderated by attachment to the brand.

III. Methodology

1. Measures

Measures of study constructs were employed from the existing studies in the extant literature (Brocato et al., 2015; Ha & Perks, 2005; Han et al., 2018; Taylor & Hunter, 2003; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Multiple items were used, and a 5-point scale was utilized to evaluate study constructs. Specifically, 4 items were used for the assessment of attitude toward the brand. A total of 5 items were utilized in order to measure awareness of the brand. In addition, we used 4 items for the evaluation of brand experiences. A total of 3 items were employed to measure attachment to the brand. Lastly, we utilized 3 items for the assessment of customer loyalty. The survey questionnaire contained these measures along with research description and questions for the participants' demographic information. This questionnaire was refined through a pre-test and expert review.

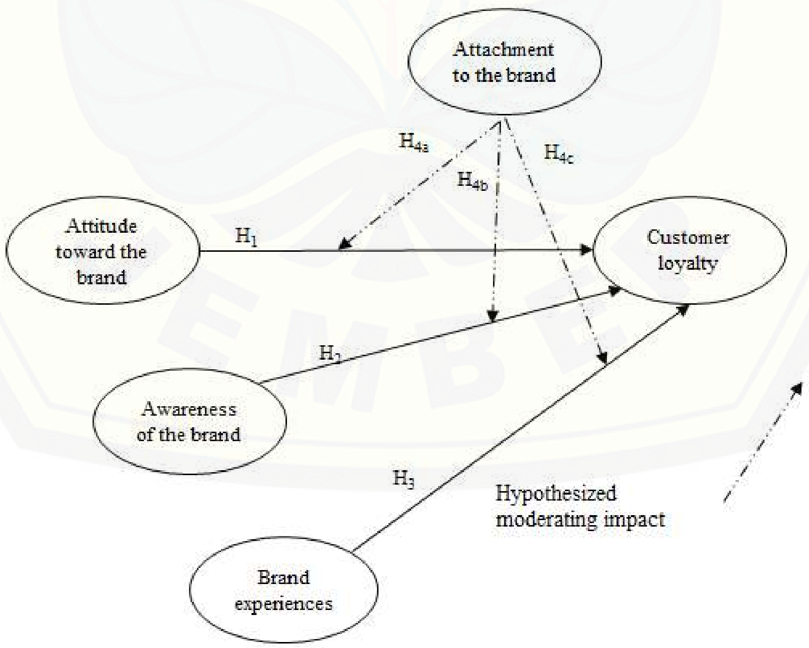

Figure 1. The proposed theoretical model

2. Data collection

A field survey was conducted at tourist sites of a metropolitan city, South Korea. The area was chosen as many citizens and tourists visit the places for social gathering, shopping, and entertainments. Thus, the places include many restaurants, cafés, bars, and retail stores. That is, customers can have a variety of options when selecting a restaurant for dining and find many alternatives. This area is expected to be appropriate for gathering qualified data in that the major consumer group of name-brand steakhouses, people in the age range of 20s to mid-40s, usually stays in the area. For reliability of the data collection, a research team of 34 undergraduate students in hospitality management was trained and composed of 6 groups for field survey. The surveyors approached patrons who dined in front of name-brand steakhouses. A small gift was offered to all survey participants who fill in their questionnaires. Through this procedure, a total 260 complete and usable cases were gathered.

3. Samples

Among 260 survey participants, about 46.9% were men, and 53.1% were women. All participants' age was 18 years old or older. The majority of their age fel between 20 - 29 years old (51.9%). Of 260 respondents, about 46.9% reported that they are university graduates (or currently a student attending any university), followed by high-school graduates (28.5%), 2-year college graduates (12.3%) (or currently a student attending any 2-year college), and graduate degree holders (12.3%). About 63.1% reported that they are married. Regarding the montly income, about 55.8% indicated that their income per month is less than 1,999,999 Korean Won, followed by between 2,000,000 - 3,999,999 Korean Won (32.7%), and 4,000,000 Korean Won or more (11.5%)

IV. Results

1. Measurement quality testing

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted for creation of the measurement model. Our result revealed that the adequate level of the goodness-of-fit statistics was included in the measurement model (χ^2=255.837, df = 123, p<.001, χ^2/df = 2.080, RMSEA = .065, CFI = .955, IFI = .956, TLI = .944). All loading values were significant at p < .01. The values of composite reliability for all constructs (attitude toward the brand = .884, awareness of the brand = .851, brand experiences = .874, attachment to the brand = .822, customer loyalty = .867) exceeded the recommended the threshold of .700 (Hair et al., 2010). AVE values for study constructs (attitude toward the brand = .655; awareness of the brand = .540, brand experiences = .698, attachment to the brand = .609,

Table 1. Measurement model results

Variables	*(1)*	*(2)*	*(3)*	*(4)*	*(5)*	*Mean (SD)*	*CR (AVE)*
Attitude toward the brand	1.000					3.332 (.751)	.884 (.655)
Awareness of the brand	.646[a] (.417)[b]	1.000				3.085 (.765)	.851 (.540)
Brand experiences	.554 (.307)	.615 (.378)	1.000			2.635 (.918)	.874 (.698)
Attachment to the brand	.662 (.438)	.554 (.307)	.602 (.362)	1.000		3.005 (.847)	.822 (.609)
Customer loyalty	.657 (.432)	604 (.365)	.439 (.193)	.555 (.308)	1.000	3.345 (.762)	.867 (.685)

Note: Goodness-of-fit statistics: χ^2=225.837, df = 123, p<.001, χ^2/df = 2.080, RMSEA = .065, CFI = .955, IFI = .956, TLI = .944
[a] Correlations between variables are below the diagonal.
[b] Squared correlations between variables.

Table 2. Structural model results (N=260)

Hypothesis	*Independent variables*	*Dependent variables*	*Coefficient*	*t-value*
H_1	Attitude toward the brand	→ Customer loyalty	.592	6.840**
H_2	Awareness of the brand	→ Customer loyalty	.276	2.875**
H_3	Brand experiences	→ Customer loyalty	-.058	-.694

Note: Total variance explained (R^2): R^2 for customer loyalty =.593
Goodness-of-fit statistics χ^2=160.774, df = 82, p<.001, χ^2/df = 1.961, RMSEA = .061, CFI = .968, IFI = .968, TLI = .958
*p<.05, **p<.01

Table 3. Invariance test results

Path	*High attachment (n = 165)*		*Low attachment (n = 95)*		*Baseline model (freely estimated)*	*Nested model (constrained to be equal)*
	β	*t-value*	*β*	*t-value*		
Attitude→ Customer loyalty	.635	5.333**	.405	2.949**	$\chi^2(164)$ = 262.316	$\chi^2(165)$ = 266.398[a]
Awareness→ Customer loyalty	.281	1.878	.218	1.641	$\chi^2(164)$ = 262.316	$\chi^2(165)$ = 262.317[b]
Brand experiences → Customer loyalty	-.107	-.924	.024	.183	$\chi^2(164)$ = 262.316	$\chi^2(165)$ = 262.743[c]

Note: Chi-square difference test:
[a] $\Delta\chi^2$ (1) = 4.082, p<.05 (H_{4a} - Supported)
[b] $\Delta\chi^2$ (1) = .001, p>.05 (H_{4b} - Not supported)
[c] $\Delta\chi^2$ (1) = .427, p>.05 (H_{4c} - Not supported)
Goodness-of-fit statistics for the baseline model:
χ^2=262.316, df = 164, p<.001, χ^2/df = 1.599, RMSEA = .048, CFI = .950, IFI = .952, TLI = .936
*p<.05, **p<.01

customer loyalty = .685) also exceeded the suggested cutoff of .500 (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, these AVE values were greater than squared between -construct correlations (see Table 1). Given this, construct validity (convergent and discriminant) was supported.

2. Structural analysis and hypotheses testing

A structural equation modeling was conducted for the assessment of the hypothesized conceptual framework. Our result revealed that satisfactory level of the goodness-of-fit statistics was involved in the structural model (χ^2 = 160.774, df = 82, p<.001, χ^2/df = 1.961, RMSEA = .061, CFI = .968, IFI = .968, TLI = .958)(see Table 2). The model contained a sufficient level of prediction power for customer loyalty in that it accounted for about 59.3% of the variance in loyalty. Subsequently, the hypothesized effect of attitude toward the brand on customer loyalty was tested. Our result showed the significant and positive relationship between two variables (β = .41, p < .01), thus supporting Hypothesis 1. The proposed effect of awareness of the brand on loyalty was tested. Our result indicated the significant and positive association between two constructs (β = .276, p < .01). Hence, Hypothesis 2 was supported. However, the hypothesized influence of brand experience on loyalty was found to be insignificant (β = -.058, p < .05). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

3. Baseline model and moderating effect testing

The baseline model was generated for the assessment of the moderating effect of attachment to the brand. The model encompassed two groups, namely high attachment group and low attachment group. The participants' responses for attachment to the brand were divided into these high and low groups based on the results of K-means cluster analysis. The high group contained 165 cases whereas the low group included 95 cases. Then, we made a comparison between

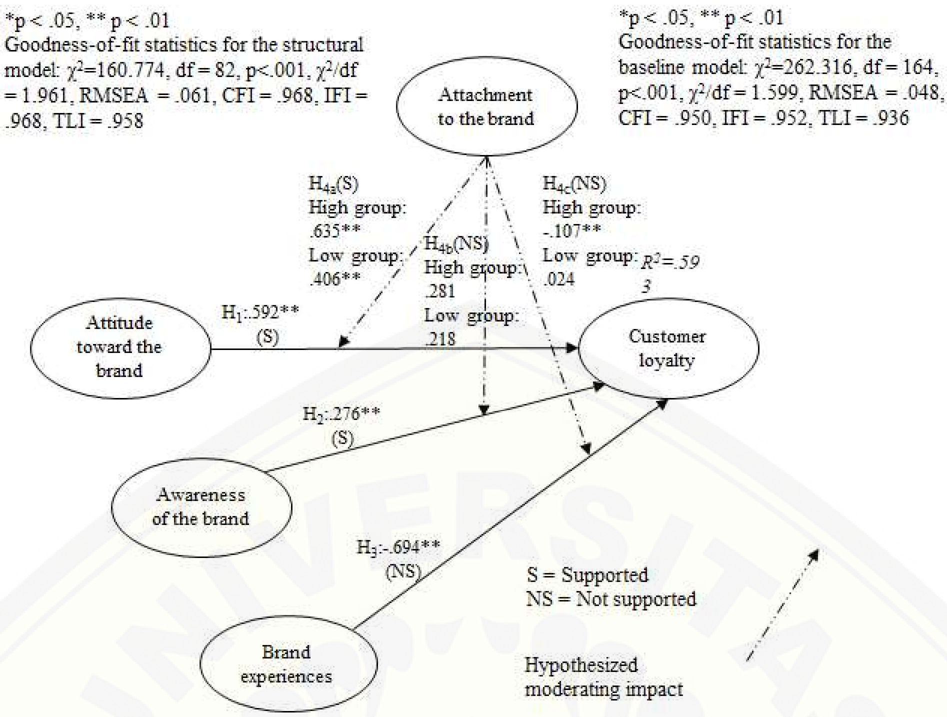

Figure 2. Structural model and invariance-test results

such baseline model and a series of restricted model using a Chi-square test. In these restricted models, a specific path of interest was set to be equivalent across high and low attachment groups. Table 3 shows the results of this comparison. Specifically, the linkage from attitude toward the brand to customer loyalty was significantly different between high and low attachment groups ($\Delta\chi^2$ [1] = 4.082, p<.05). This result supported Hypothesis 4a. Yet, the links from awareness to the loyalty were not significantly different between two groups. Therefore, Hypotheses 4b and 4c were not supported.

V. Discussion and Conclusion

Brand loyalty is undeniably a core concept of brand success in every restaurant sector. In the present study, we aimed to unearth the associations among attitude toward the brand, awareness of the brand, and brand experiences, and to explore the impact of such relationships on patrons' brand loyalty in the steakhouse context by taking the effect of attachment to the brand in to account. Using the data collected from the field survey, a quantitative methodological approach was utilized. All measurement tools for study variables included an acceptable level of reliability and validity. Attitude toward the brand were identified to be of utmost importance as its subsequent variable is a significant direct function of it. The proposed associations within the research model were generally supported. Attachment to the brand was a crucial moderator. The theoretical framework developed in this research had a satisfactorily level of ability in anticipating customer loyalty. In general, the successful achievement of the study objectives in the chain steakhouse industry as made. In sum, findings in the present study included a substantial value in theory and practice since this is one of the very few studies dealing with patrons' decision formation considering both cognitive and affective aspects in the name-brand steakhouse context.

The result of the present research demonstrated the criticality of attitude toward the brand and awareness of the brand in the formation of brand loyalty. Specifically, our empirical findings showed that attitude toward the brand

and awareness of the brand exerted a positive influence on customer loyalty. Our results are consistent with previous research findings that emphasized the importance of these variables in patrons' decision-making process and consumption behaviors (Chow et al., 2007; Taylor & Hunter, 2003; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). In detail, one of our results, the significant impact of brand awareness on customer loyalty, is common in the consequence of the existing study(Kim et al, 2018) as well as the outcome of positive attitude toward the brand on the loyalty supports the previous researches(Taylor & Hunter, 2003; Yun, 2017). Therefore, these results will contribute to forge more robust links for attitude toward the brand and awareness of the brand in relation to customer loyalty in a theoretical standpoint. In pragmatic aspects, given these important findings, operators of chain steakhouses should place their efforts on improving attitude toward the brand, awareness of the brand for the higher level of customer loyalty. Especially, as the attitude showed the highest outcome in loyalty formation, considering the attitude in regard to marketing strategy and plan will be one of the crucial concerns to build a sturdier position in the current market environment saturated by the severe competitions.

Findings from the metric invariance assessment showed that attachment to the brand had a significant moderating role within the proposed conceptual framework. The effect of attitude toward the brand on customer loyalty was significantly greater in the high group of attachment to the brand (high group: β = .635, p < .01) than in the low attachment group (low group: β = .635, p < .01). This result implies that at the similar level of attitude toward the brand, those patrons who feel high attachment to the brand build stronger level of loyalty for the steakhouse brand.

Attachment to the brand is believed to be one of the most crucial constructs in explicating patrons' post-purchase decision-making process and loyalty in marketing and consumer behavior (Brocato et al., 2015; Jang, Kim, & Lee, 2015; Thomson, 2006). Providing strong support for the findings of these previous studies, results of this research identified the essential role of attachment to the brand in building customer loyalty for a name-brand steakhouse. Customers who feel attached to the chain steakhouse brand tend to be loyal to the brand, suggesting that chain steakhouse operators may want to invest in practices that enhance customers' emotional attachment to the chain steakhouse. Customer's brand attachment to the chain steakhouse can be developed by placing a premium on brand quality and satisfaction. Concentrating on these precursors is likely to foster emotional bonding between the steakhouse and its loyal customers.

The present study is not free from limitations that offer future research opportunities. First, our survey was at tourist sites in a metropolitan city of one particular country, and our findings were derived from the data from this survey. That is, the results can differ if the survey includes responses from geographical areas in other countries. To increase external validity, future research should encompass the responses from diverse areas in globe. Second, undeniably, satisfaction and quality are key triggers of loyalty (Oliver, 2010). Yet, these vital concepts were not involved in the present research in order to reduce the suppressor influence of these constructs on other research variables employed in this study. In order to increase the prediction power of our theoretical framework for customer loyalty, it is recommended for future study to involve satisfaction and quality into the proposed framework.

In closing, despite few limitations indicated above, the findings of this research considerably contribute to the food service literature. Moreover, our results offer meaningful insights into how name-brand steakhouse proprietors deal with customer attitude toward the brand, brand awareness, and attachment to the brand. Given this, the present research improves our overall knowledge regarding steakhouse patrons' post-purchase decision-making process and behaviors encompassing usefulness in theory and practice.

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Local food purchasing in the farmers' market
: Value-attitude-behavior

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Abstract

From local farmers' markets to local homes, a vast demand exists for local foods. However, the literature on local foods remains undeveloped, especially in the sense of empirically-based research. The study employs value-attitude-behavior theory to examine local food purchases in the farmers' market context. The study utilizes structural equation modeling via a consumer panel (n = 485) to explore the causal relationships among latent variables related to value, attitude, and behavior in the setting of farmers' markets. Results indicate that four value constructs (e.g., food novelty, food safety, civic engagement, and environmental concern) influence consumers' attitudes regarding design, social, and local food quality aspects in the farmers' market, and eventually influencing behavioral intentions such as purchase intention and word-of-mouth recommendations. Practitioners who focus on the areas of local foods production and consumption must engage with audiences they wish to serve. Practitioners may devise creative marketing strategies to address the needs of their target audience by understanding the relationships among their value, attitude, and behavior.

Key words: Farmers' market, Value-attitude-behavior, Food novelty, Food safety, Civic engagement

I. Introduction

From farmers' market booths to kitchen tables, the demand for locally-produced foods has been increasing (Shideler & Watson, 2019). Even though there are no labeled local-foods, such as labels for local organic foods, farmers' markets grew in popularity over the previous decades ("USDA Celebrates National," 2014). The increasing demand for local foods also has been driven by a growing demographic of environmentally friendly and health-conscious consumers (Shin et al., 2019). As the demand for local foods has transformed the traditional big agriculture and food supply chains, farmers' markets have played a critical role in the evolution of retail food channels.

According to the United States Congress, the definition of *local foods* includes those agricultural products traveling a total distance of fewer than 400 miles from its origin (Low et al., 2015). The concept of *local foods*, which limited both traditional industrialization and commercialization methods, grew in popularity via farmers' markets (Zepeda & Deal, 2009). Despite the increasing popularity of local foods, theoretically-based research studies of this topic have only begun. Against this background, this study employs value-attitude-behavior theory to examine whether and why consumers engage in purchasing locally-produced foods from farmers' markets. To address this gap in the literature,

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the researchers examine the influence of four value constructs (e.g., food novelty, food safety, civic engagement, and environmental concern) on consumers' attitudes toward design, social, and food quality elements, and eventually outcome variables such as purchase intention and word-of-mouth recommendations. The results of this study will provide insights to farmers' market retailers regarding who visit the market and their experiences. Researchers may apply the results of this study to other farmers' markets on both a domestic and international level.

II. Literature review

1. Farmers' markets

While farmers' markets serve as valuable and viable means of offering local foods, it is important to realize that farmers' markets are still in the business of food retailing, with consumers seeking to obtain a sense of value for the dollars they spend and producers seeking to maximize profits for the items they sell. This view was supported by Lyson, Gillespie, and Hilchey (1995), who conducted their study in the setting of farmers' markets in New York State. The researchers found that the enjoyment farmers obtained from connecting with customers through participation in the farmers' market was more important than economic motivations. Hinrichs (2000) summarized her research on local foods markets including farmers' markets by stating, "social ties, community, and good will [at farmers' markets] are often appropriately seasoned by self-interest and a clear view of prices" (p. 301).

The need for additional farmers' market research, specifically as it relates to fostering the competitive advantages of these markets, becomes more apparent when considering the economic contribution farmers' markets (Sneed & Fairhurst, 2010). As one of the fastest growing forms of farm marketing in the nation, farmers' markets account for a sizeable portion of the nearly seven billion dollars in direct sales of food products from farmers to consumers (Dimitri & Effland, 2018).

2. Theoretical framework

Researchers posit that value and attitude are customarily antecedents to intention/behavior (Han, Hwang, Lee, & Kim, 2019). Based on its pervasive use in consumer research as well as its use in understanding food purchasing (Grunert & Juhl, 1995; Homer & Kahle, 1988), value-attitude-behavior theory was used as the theoretical framework for this study. Homer and Kahle (1988) found that a consumer's value and attitude influence natural food shopping. By utilizing structural equation analyses of the value-attitude-behavior model, the researchers found that people who hold intrinsic values (i.e., fun and enjoyment in life, self-fulfillment, excitement, a sense of accomplishment, and self-respect) tend to prefer natural foods. In turn, these values inspired respondents' attitudes toward nutrition that positively affected their attitudes towards spending more money on natural foods and more frequent shopping for natural foods. Also, Goldsmith, Frieden, and Henderson (1997) found that food attitudes and social values influenced food purchase behavior.

Research studies on farmers' markets have sought to understand better the unique atmosphere (Hunt, 2007), needs of market managers (Berry, Moyer, & Oberholtzer, 2013), as well as consumers' attitudes toward products offered (Murphy, 2011). However, a majority of these studies have failed to utilize theory as a foundation for their research. The present study seeks to address this lack of theoretically-based research in the farmers' market setting by utilizing value-attitude-behavior theory.

3. Hypotheses development

This study adopts the value-attitude-behavior framework to understand the impact of consumers' value (food novelty, food safety, civic engagement, and environmental concern) on their attitudes (design, social, and food quality perceptions) and on their post-consumption behaviors (purchase intention and word-of-mouth). Figure 1 displays the research model that was tested with the structural equation modeling.

The effect of food novelty on design and food quality

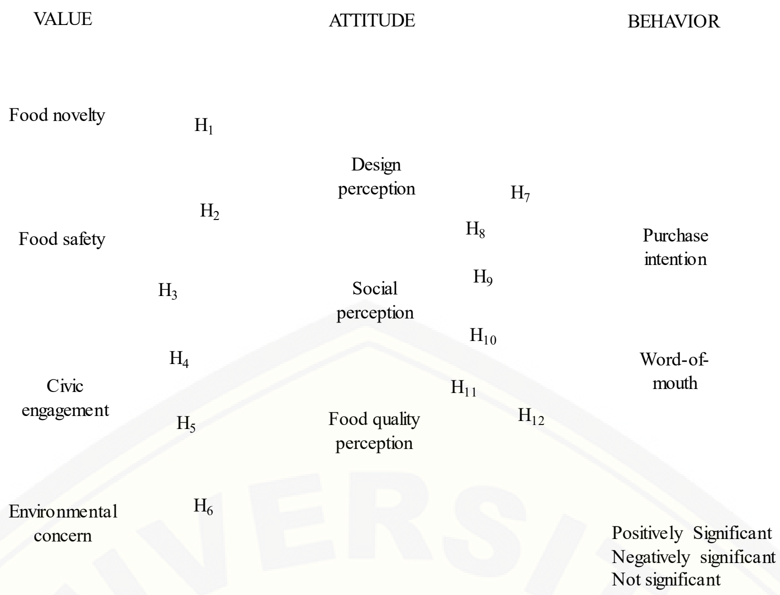

Figure 1. Research model

perceptions

The concept of food novelty represents the value that consumers place on food experimentation techniques, new recipes and culinary techniques (Brunsø, Scholderer, & Grunert, 2004). Therefore, food novelty provides a way to measure a consumer's perceived value of the food preparation process and the overall assessment of a food quality product (Brunsø, Fjord, & Grunert, 2002). Furthermore, positive experiences from farmers' markets may be driven by the atmospheric components (e.g., design and social components) of the market to generate positive consumption experiences (Turley & Milliman, 2000). Regarding local farmers' markets, consumers are allowed to experience local foods and essentially create an individual experience by interacting with both the physical landscape (e.g., foods, stands, décor) and the ambient environment (e.g., lighting, services, interaction with local-food purveyors). This experience can be higher for consumers who value food novelty, by enjoying new recipes, special meals, or food from different cultures.

Consumers who value food novelty have an interest in food preparation often put increased effort into the preparation of meals (Brunsø et al., 2002). These consumers are highly involved in food preparation, food shopping, and take great care in seeking out food products which are fresh and of high quality (Zepeda & Li, 2006). Therefore, it is logical that consumers with interest in food novelty hold positive attitudes regarding the quality of local foods. Therefore, the researchers propose the following hypotheses:

H_1: Consumers' food novelty value positively influences their attitudes toward the design aspect of the farmers' market.

H_2: Consumers' food novelty value positively influences their attitudes toward local food quality in the farmers' market.

The effect of food safety on food quality perception

Throughout the previous decades, food safety has been of critical concern. The safety of food is especially true of globalized food sourcing; some foods travel between 1500 to 2000 miles from farm-to-plate (Halweil, 2002). Not surprisingly, the concern for food safety is a primary driver in the purchasing and consumption of local-foods (Halweil, 2002). Consumers who value local farmers' markets value the quality of the food, and food quality is one of the most frequently associated terms with local foods (Bloom, 2010). In a study by Onozaka, Nurse, and McFadden

(2010), consumers rated locally grown foods higher regarding freshness and quality compared to the foods domestically grown (but not locally grown).

In the literature, the connection between food quality and food safety is so pervasive that it has led some researchers to use the terms interchangeably as synonyms one for the other. In addition, the concept of food quality has been conceptualized to be an attitudinal extension of food safety. In their study of organic foods, Michaelidou and Hassan (2008) found consumers' perceptions of food safety to be one of the most important aspects informing consumers' attitude toward overall food quality. Based on this review, the researchers propose the following hypothesis:

H_3: Consumers' food safety value positively influences their attitudes toward local food quality in the farmers' market.

The effect of civic engagement on social and food quality perceptions

Farmers' markets offer a unique form of social or civic engagement within the local community. Many researchers explain that civic agriculture shapes a variety of unique interactions and connections between the producer and the consumer. As such, farmers' markets create value via the social experience of local farmers' markets (Sherry, 1990). According to Lyson and Guptill (2004), positive attitudes toward local food quality not only drive consumers to seek out local products but also sustain consumers via a shared sense of community with other local food consumers and producers (Lyson & Guptill, 2004). Also, farmers' markets can directly market the association between foods locally grown in the community and the local consumers who visit. According to DeLind (2001), shared social connections and collective social responsibility serve as fundamental components of civic engagement. For many consumers, the purchasing of local foods serves as one such shared interaction fostering relationships with other local foods consumers and vendors (Brehem & Eisenhauer, 2008). One would expect local foods consumers who value civic engagement to hold positive attitudes toward environments that allow them to interact and form social connections with other local foods shoppers as well as the store employees and vendors. From a review of the literature, the researchers propose the following hypotheses:

H_4: Consumers' civic engagement positively influences their attitudes toward the social aspect of the farmers' market.

A connection between civic engagement and attitude toward local foods quality is not addressed in the social or political sciences research literature. However, a relationship between these two concepts is alluded in the local foods literature. This relationship is related to localized food production/consumption and the idea of civic agriculture (Lyson & Guptill, 2004). The relationship between engagement and positive attitudes toward local foods quality is most pronounced in the direct-marketing channels (of which farmers' markets are included) (Lyson & Guptill, 2004). This finding should not be surprising given that direct-marketing channels afford consumers ample opportunities for interacting with other consumers and, most importantly, local foods producers. Therefore, the researchers establish the following hypothesis.

H_5: Consumers' civic engagement positively influences their attitudes toward local food quality in the farmers' market.

The effect of environmental concern on food quality perception

Food production has spanned the globe to meet the growing needs of the world's population. This situation has brought a variety of environmental concerns such as natural resource depletion, air/water pollution, and pronounced energy demands. As a direct result of these various environmental concerns, more consumers are purchasing foods locally (Bloom, 2010). Researchers have reported that the value for the environment is a consistent motivating factor in consumers' willingness to purchase local foods; these consumers perceive local foods as high quality (Zepeda & Deal, 2009). Grunert and Juhl (1995) also concluded that consumers who hold strong pro-environmental attitudes are more likely to increase local food consumption and engage in post consumption of locally grown organic foods than their counterpart.

The local foods literature has alluded to a tightly woven connection between consumers' concern for the environment and food quality. Often these two concepts are cited as the primary factors motivating consumers to source food locally (Bloom, 2010; Darby, Batte, Ernst, & Roe, 2008). According to Edwards-Jones et al. (2008), the research surrounding local foods not only assumes an association between quality and environmental benefit, but also reinforces the association. Based on this review of the literature, the researchers establish the following hypothesis:

H_6: Consumers' environmental concern positively influences their attitudes toward local food quality in the farmers' market.

The effect of design perception on purchase and word-of-mouth intentions

Turley and Milliman's (2000) store environment research points to the fact that consumers' perceptions of a store's interior environment influence their approach/avoidance behavior, their time spent in the store, and ultimately retail sales. Additionally, Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, and Voss (2002) found that consumers' assessment of store design has a positive influence on their store patronage intentions including their recommendation of the store to other consumers.

Design elements in farmers' markets include cues such as attractive displays and facilities, product information (e.g., signs), and cleanliness. Consumers' positive perception of the farmers' market environment has been found to influence the amount spent at the market as well as consumers' overall attitude toward the market (Hunt, 2007). Similarly, Sneed (2014) attested that farmers' markets with positive design cues can influence shoppers to stay longer and spend more time. Furthermore, several researchers argued that consumers in farmers' markets often consider the environment including the festive atmosphere to be a key reason driving their patronage of these venues (Bloom, 2010). Given this, it is postulated that consumers' attitude toward store design perceptions positively affects purchase intention and word-of-mouth communications. Therefore, the researchers posit the following hypotheses:

H_7: Consumers' design perception in the farmers' market positively influences their purchase intention.

H_8: Consumers' design perception in the farmers' market positively influences their WOM intention.

The effect of social perception on purchase and word-of-mouth intentions

Baker et al. (2002) found social dimensions of a store's environment to exert a positive, influence on consumers' store patronage intentions. Consumers' perceptions of the store's social atmosphere positively influenced their evaluation of service quality, their willingness to purchase at the store, as well as their propensity to tell others about their experiences with the store. The farmers' market venue allows the consumer to interact with the surrounding area and sales personnel. Hofmann, Dennis, and Marshall (2008), in their study with 49 Indiana farmers' markets, found that vendor participation was predicted by the number of customers in attendance and the extent to which a vendor needed to purchase space to sell to customers. Thus, social interactions are critical components of the overall atmosphere of the farmers' market.

Several other researchers acknowledge the importance of social interactions to provide a positive experience to shoppers in farmers' markets (Bloom, 2010). According to Hunt (2007), consumers' positive perceptions of the social environment in a farmers' market increased the likelihood of purchase intention and the amount of money spent during the experience. Based on the preceding information, the authors propose that consumers' attitude toward social perceptions is positively related to purchase intention and word-of-mouth communications. Therefore, the researchers establish the following hypotheses:

H_9: Consumers' social perception in the farmers' market positively influences their purchase intention.

H_{10}: Consumers' social perception in the farmers' market positively influences their word-of-mouth intention.

The effect of food quality perception on purchase and word-of-mouth intentions

A positive relationship between consumers' perceptions of food quality and consumers' engagement in purchasing and word-of-mouth activities is evident in the food service industry (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000). In their study of ethnic restaurant patrons, Ha and Jang (2010) found that consumers' perceptions of food quality had a positive effect on loyalty measured by consumers' intention to purchase and engage in the word-of-mouth activity.

Regarding local foods, Darby et al. (2008) discovered a positive effect of consumers' favorable perceptions of local food quality on purchase behavior. Jekanowski, Williams, and Schiek (2000) also found a positive relationship between the perception of local foods quality and the purchase of local foods. Also, Dougherty and Green (2011) found consumers' perceptions of local food products to be influential in the word-of-mouth messages regarding farmers' market vendors. Indeed, consumers' positive evaluation of the local food products often spurs positive word-of-mouth messages. Based on the findings outlined above, the authors hypothesize that consumers' attitudes toward local food quality positively influences purchase intention and word-of-mouth intentions. Thus, the researchers posit the following hypotheses:

H_{11}: Consumers' food quality perception in the farmers' market positively influences their purchase intention.

H_{12}: Consumers' food quality perception in the farmers' market positively influences their word-of-mouth intention.

III. Method

1. Sample

The researchers collected the data from consumer panels via an online survey company in the United States. The respondents consisted of those consumers who purchased local food items from a farmers' market within the last twelve months. After eliminating 30 incomplete surveys, the researchers used a total of 485 useable surveys for analyses. The largest group of the respondents were females (63.9%), Caucasian (69.9%), between 25 and 34 years of age (26.6%), and had annual incomes between $50,000 and $74,999 (26%) and a bachelor's, graduate, or professional degree (50.5%). Respondents also were asked to select the option that best fits their definition of local food. The finding indicates that approximately 65% of the respondents agreed local foods were originated from less than 100 miles from their home.

2. Measures

The researchers derived the measurement items of this study from previous studies. The scale items of food novelty are adapted from Brunsø and Grunert (1995); those of food safety, from those of Kamenidou, Priporas, Michailidis, and Mamalis (2003) and Michaelidou and Hassan (2008); those of civic engagement, from Shah (1998); those of environmental concern, from Bang, Ellinger, Hadjimarcou, and Traichal (2000). (2000); those of design and social perceptions, from Baker et al. (2002); those of food quality, from Kamenidou et al. (2003); those of purchase intention, from Vermeir and Verbeke (2007); and those of word-of-mouth communication, from Babin, Lee, Kim, and Griffin (2005). All these scale items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Before conducting the primary data collection, the research instrument was pilot-tested with a convenience sample (n = 97) of adults ages 18 and older who received a link to the survey instrument via e-mails and postings on two social media websites. The result did not reveal any issues with the instrument, endorsing it to be used in the primary data collection.

3. Analysis

The researchers employed a two-step approach to structural equation modeling: measurement model and structural model. Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 20 with maximum-likelihood estimation was utilized for testing both the measurement and structural models. To assess model fit, four fit statistics were examined χ^2/df ratio, the comparative fit index (CFI), the

Table 1. Measurement items

Construct	***Item***	***SL***	***CR***
Food novelty	I like to try out new recipes.	.79	.87
	I look for ways to prepare unusual meals.	.86	
	Recipes on food from other cultures/ regions make me experiment in the kitchen.	.87	
Food safety	I am concerned about the amount of hormones in food.	.86	.94
	I am concerned about the amount of insecticides in food.	.95	
	I am concerned about the amount of pesticides in food.	.94	
	I am concerned about the amount of bacteria in food.	.71	
	I am concerned about the amount of artificial additives in food.	.78	
	The safety of meat nowadays concerns me.	.75	
	Most foods contain residues from chemical sprays and fertilizers.	.64	
	I am concerned about the amount of artificial additives and preservatives in food.	.68	
	The quality and safety of meat nowadays concerns me.	.62	
Civic engagement	How often do you consider yourself influential in your neighborhood?	.73	.91
	How often have you gone to a club meeting (e.g., Ruritan Club, Lions Club)?	.76	
	How often have you done volunteer work?	.80	
	How often have you worked on a community project?	.93	
	How often have you attended a public interest meeting?	.86	
Environmental concern	How concerned are you about the environment?	.84	.93
	How concerned are you about pollution?	.86	
	How concerned are you about water and air pollution in your community?	.86	
	How concerned are you about water usage in your community?	.74	
	How concerned are you about the environment when making purchases?	.84	
	How concerned are you about the loss of farm-land in your community?	.64	
Design perception	Pleasing displays	.80	.94
	Attractive facilities	.85	
	Organized merchandise	.79	
	Clear informational signs	.79	
	High standards of cleanliness	.74	
Social perception	Appropriately-dressed employees	.95	.84
	Friendly employees	.87	
	Helpful employees	.64	
	There were opportunities to discuss products with fellow shoppers.	.68	
	Fellow shoppers were open to conversations.	.62	
	Overall, the store environment was socially pleasant.	.71	
Food quality perception	Freshness	.77	.95
	Texture	.85	
	Appearance	.83	
	Taste	.84	
	Color	.85	
	Aroma	.83	
	Nutritional Value	.73	
Purchase intention	There is a very good chance that I will buy local foods at this farmers' market in the future.	.91	.95
	It is highly likely that I will buy local foods at this farmers' market in the future.	.89	
	I am highly certain that I will buy local foods at this farmers' market in the future.	.87	
Word-of-mouth	I will say positive things about local foods at this location to other people.	.92	.95
	I will recommend local foods at this location to someone seeking my advice.	.89	
	I will encourage friends and relatives to go to this location for local foods.	.89	

SL: Standardized loading; CR: Construct reliability

Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA).

IV. Results

1. Measurement model

As the first step of structural equation modeling, a measurement model with all latent constructs was computed (Table 1). Construct validity was measured by convergent validity and discriminant validity. Two findings confirmed convergent validity: (a) the standardized loadings for each measurement item comprising a given latent construct being significant and (b) the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each construct being greater than the threshold of .5. Discriminant validity was confirmed by AVE statistics being larger than the squared inter-construct correlation (SIC) estimates between constructs. The measurement model yielded good model fit: χ^2/df = 2.2, CFI = .94, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .05.

2. Structural model and hypotheses testing result

With acceptable fit obtained for the measurement model, the full structural model with the hypothesized paths was run and was found to have adequate fit: χ^2/df = 2.44, CFI = .93, TLI = .92, RMSEA = .054. Figure 1 depicts the graphical summary of hypotheses result. Regarding the paths from value to attitude, the relationship between consumer's values of food novelty and their attitudes toward the design aspect of the farmers' market was positive (β = .33, $p < .001$), supporting H_1. Also, consumer's value of food novelty was positively related to their attitude toward local food quality (β = .23, $p < .001$), supporting H_2. Consumers' food safety value was positively related to their attitudes toward local food quality (β = .24, $p < .001$), supporting H_3. Also, the relationship between consumers' values of civic engagement and their attitudes toward the social aspect of the farmers' market was positive (β = .09, $p < .05$), supporting H_4. However, the relationship between consumers' values of civic engagement and their attitudes toward local foods quality was significant, but in an opposite direction from the original one (β = -.13, $p < .05$), not supporting H_5. The relationship between consumers' values of environmental concern and their attitudes toward local foods quality was positive (β = .17, $p < .05$), supporting H_6.

Regarding the paths from attitude to behavior, the relationship between consumers' attitudes toward design of the farmers' market and their purchase intention was neither positive nor significant (β = -.06, p = .249), not supporting H_7. However, the relationship between consumers' attitudes toward design of the farmers' market and their word-of-mouth intentions was positive (β = .11, $p < .05$), supporting H_8. Consumers' attitudes toward social perceptions of the farmers' market were positively related to purchase intention (β = .13, $p < .01$) and word-of-mouth intention (β = .17, $p < .001$), supporting H_9 and H_{10}, respectively. Lastly, consumers' attitudes toward local foods quality were positively related to their purchase intention (β = .64, $p < .001$) and their word-of-mouth intentions (β = .62, $p < .001$), supporting H_{11} and H_{12}, respectively. Of all attitudinal variables hypothesized to impact consumers' behaviors, food quality perception had the largest magnitude of impact on purchase intention (β = .64) and word-of-mouth intention (β = .62). The significance of food quality perceptions and the magnitude of its impact on consumers' behavioral intentions are not surprising. Studies have consistently found a positive relationship between the perception of local foods quality and the purchase of local foods (Byker, Shanks, Misyak, & Serrano, 2012; Darby et al., 2008; Jekanowski et al., 2000).

V. Discussion and implications

The primary purposes of this research were to advance the literature on consumers who purchase local-foods from farmers' markets and to provide insightful strategies to practitioners. This study found the effects of these attitudes on purchase intentions and post-consumption behaviors. Given these findings, practitioners (e.g., farmers' market managers, extension agents), who focus on the areas of local foods production and consumption, can devise marketing strategies to address the needs of their target audience.

The relationships delineated by Value-Attitude-Behavior Theory were supported by the research model. All consumer values (food novelty, food safety, civic engagement, and environmental concern) positively impacted at least one attitudinal construct. Additionally, all three attitudinal constructs positively impacted at least one of the outcome behaviors. The positive impact of values on attitudes and attitudes on behavior demonstrated through this study mirrors findings of other food-related studies (Feldmann & Hamm, 2015).

Food quality perception was found to be a strong variable as an outcome of the value constructs and a predictor of behavioral intentions. The food quality perception in turn predicted purchase intention and word-of-mouth. From these findings, it is apparent that local producers must offer the highest quality of food products for farmers' markets. Farmers' markets must focus on food novelty because consumers want to experience unique food offerings, and unique cooking methods. Practitioners should focus on product cues that consumers search from local foods that include food texture, appearance, taste, and aroma.

The significance of food quality perceptions and its impact on consumers' behavior is not surprising. Studies have consistently found positive relationships to exist between perceptions of local foods quality and the purchase of local foods; this relationship has held constant regardless of the local food items under consideration (Byker et al., 2012). Additionally, the impact of consumers' perceptions of local foods quality on word-of-mouth communications aligns with the work of Dougherty and Green (2011) in that consumers' perceptions of local food products to be influential in the word-of-mouth messages to consumers' regarding farmers' market vendors.

In addition, food safety was found to be a strong predictor of food quality perception. The positive impact consumers' values of food safety has on their attitudes toward local foods quality perceptions supports the findings of previous local foods studies (Bloom, 2010; Grunert, 2005; Michaelidou & Hassan, 2008). Local food purveyors must realize that ensuring safe products are important to consumers. Local farmers and food purveyors should adapt Good Agriculture Practices (GAP) which communicate the commitment to serve local consumers with only the freshest and most wholesome foods.

As another major finding, food novelty influenced consumer attitudes towards design and food quality in the farmers' market. The positive impact that consumers' value of food novelty has on consumers' attitudes regarding local foods quality perceptions is not surprising in light of the extant research. Zepeda and Li (2006) show that consumers who enjoy cooking place high importance on food quality. The positive impact of consumers' values of food novelty on their attitudes toward the farmers' market design perceptions mirrors findings from the study of quality-oriented food shoppers (Morschett, Swoboda, & Foscht, 2007). Given that food novelty deals with food preparations, farmers' markets may work directly with local restaurant chefs to provide a community kitchen, in which the local chefs may prepare foods in a variety of ways to meet various consumer needs in the community.

VI. Limitations and future studies

This study has several limitations. First, respondents did not use their own conceptualization of local foods when responding to the survey. Another limitation pertains to the means by which study data were collected. In this study, an online consumer panel from Qualtrics, a market research firm, was utilized. Also, the demographic summary of individuals responding to the survey clearly points to a lack of racial and economic diversity in the sample. While this demographic profile does match demographic profiles of the "typical" farmers' market consumer as identified in the research literature (Byker et al., 2012), this lack of diversity should be noted. Future research studies are needed for creating, implementing, and evaluating strategies to foster increased patronage of minority and limited-resource individuals at farmers' markets.

VII. Conclusion

The growing number of farmers' markets and the increased popularity of local foods have grabbed attention from researchers and practitioners. By applying the theoretical lens of Value-Attitude-Behavior Theory, the study results demonstrate that consumers' value (food novelty, food safety, civic engagement, and environmental concern) related to local foods influence the design, social, and food quality perceptions in the farmers' market, which ultimately influence their behavioral intentions. Farmers' Markets and local foods are at a tipping point in the consumer economy. In this environment, best practices for supporting the often fragile institutional structure of farmers' markets can be implemented; policies can be supportive of locally-produced foods; producers can be educated; and consumers can be empowered with choice in the foods they purchase.

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Antecedents and consequence of emotional attachment in the casino industry*

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Abstract

This study examined the significant role of customer orientation of service employees (COSE) in the relationship between casino players and casino dealers. Based on the existing theoretical background, it has been proposed that four types of COSE aid to form an emotional attachment to the casino dealers. In addition, it has been hypothesized that emotional attachment to the casino dealers positively affects loyalty. To achieve these purposes, a conceptual model was developed and assessed by using 480 actual casino players. The results of the data analysis showed that three types of COSE (i.e. technical skills, social skills, and decision-making authority) positively affect emotional attachment to casino dealers, which in turn has a positive influence on loyalty. Important theoretical and managerial implications are discussed in the last section of the article.

Key words: Emotional attachment, Casino dealer, Customer orientation of service employees(COSE), Table games; gender

I. Introduction

Table games represent the casino and have a profound impact on casino gambling revenues (Hwang, Han, & Choo, 2016). In 2015, table games made a profit of US$3,000 per unit, per day on the Las Vegas Strip (UNLV Center for Gaming Research, 2016). The agency's statistics also showed that there was a steady increase in the total revenue of table games, from about US$2.9 billion in 2010 to approximately US$3.3 billion in 2015. More importantly, the total revenue of table games surpassed the total revenue of slot machines (about US$3 billion) in 2015. These statistics show the important role of table games in the casino industry.

Casino dealers play a considerable role of table games as they operate the games by standing or sitting behind a table according to the type of game (e.g. baccarat, blackjack, poker, and roulette) (Hwang et al., 2016; Jeon & Hyun, 2013). Furthermore, casino dealers spend many hours with table game players, so they are considered customer service professionals (Hwang et al., 2016). For this reason, it is critical to build and keep a good relationship between casino players and dealers (Chron, 2014). One of the important factors in the formation of an amicable relationship between service providers and customers is 'customer orientation of service employees' (hereafter COSE) in the service industry (Hennig-Thurau, 2004; Kim & Ok, 2010). That is, when customers perceive high levels of customer orientation, they are more likely to have a good relationship with service providers. Thus, it is important and meaningful to explore the impact of COSE in the relationship between casino players and casino dealers. Unfortunately, no attempt has been made to apply the concept of COSE to the casino industry.

The objective of this study was to investigate the antecedents and consequence of emotional attachment to the casino dealers. More specifically, this study tried to find (1) the effects of the four dimensions of COSE (i.e.

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technical skills, social skills, motivation, and decision-making authority) on emotional attachment to casino dealers and (2) the influence of emotional attachment to the casino dealers on loyalty. We expect that the results of this study will help casino managers in efficiently and effectively developing customer relationship management by understanding the significant role of COSE in the relationship between casino players and dealers.

II. Literature review

1. Customer orientation of service employees (COSE)

In the service industry, because of intangible nature of services, service employees' behavior is considered one of the most significant criteria when evaluating overall service quality, emphasizing the importance of customer orientation (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017; Hennig-Thurau, 2004; Kim & Ok, 2010). Customer orientation plays an important role in the formation of a lasting customer-employee relationship, which leads economic success in the service industry (Kelly, 1992). In the same vein, Bove and Johnson (2000) also suggested that customer orientation is the key factor affecting a long-term relationship with a customer, which helps to enhance business sales.

Then, what is customer orientation? Previous studies have defined customer orientation differently. For example, according to Saxe and Weitz (1982), customer orientation at the individual level can be defined as "the degree to which salespeople practice the marketing concept by trying to help their customers make purchase decisions that will satisfy customer needs" (p. 344). In addition, Brown et al. (2002) defined customer orientation as "an employee's tendency or predisposition to meet customer needs in an on-the-job context" (p.111). Then later, Hennig-Thurau and Thurau (2003) first tried to measure customer orientation in the area of services and named it 'customer orientation of service employee'. They defined COSE as "the behavior of service employees when serving the needs and wishes of existing and prospect customers" (p. 27). Although many previous studies have suggested diverse definitions of CO or COSE, the definition proposed by Hennig-Thurau (2004) has been mostly widely accepted and used (e.g. Kang & Hyun 2012; Kim & Ok, 2010). The author defined COSE as "the extent to which the employee's behavior in personal interactions with customers meets those customer needs" (p. 462). Past studies (e.g. Hennig-Thurau, 2004; Kang & Hyun 2012; Kim & Ok, 2010) have suggested the following four theoretical sub-dimensions of COSE: (1) technical skills, (2) social skills, (3) motivation, and (4) decision-making authority.

1) Technical skills

Technical skills can be defined as a service employee's knowledge and expertise required to satisfy customers' needs during the service delivery (Hennig-Thurau, 2004). Service employees with high levels of technical skills are good at taking care of their business without mistakes (Williams & Spiro, 1985), so such employees provide high levels of service (Crosby, Evans, & Cowles, 1990; Kim, Jeon, & Hyun., 2011). Furthermore, service employees having high levels of technical skills can diminish customer's anxiety about using a service facility, which significantly affects the overall customer experience with the service facility (Andaleeb & Anwar, 1996).

2) Social skills

According to Hennig-Thurau (2004), social skills refer to the service employee's ability to take customers' perspectives in order to satisfy their needs during the service delivery. The author also explained that perspective taking occurs visually (i.e. understanding of customer views and perceptions), cognitively (i.e. understanding of customer thoughts), and emotionally (i.e. understanding of customer feelings). Thus, service employees with high level social skills play a critical role in the formation of customer satisfaction (Kim, 2009; Kim & Ok, 2010). In addition, social skills help ease customer tension and uncertainty, so they can have a great time in the service facility (Chua et al., 2015; Hennig-Thurau & Thurau, 2003; Kang & Hyun, 2012).

3) Motivation

Motivation helps to enhance social and technical skills and to convert the two skills into customer-oriented behavior, so it is considered a significant source driving service employees' behaviors to provide high-quality customer service (Hennig-Thurau, 2004; Kim, 2009). According to Hennig-Thurau (2004, p. 463), the dimension of motivation consists of the following three elements: (1) a positive valence of customer-oriented behavior and the consequences associated with such behavior on the part of the employee, (2) the employee's self-perception of being able to behave in a customer-oriented way, (3) and his or her expectations of reaching the desired outcome through engaging in such behavior.

In addition, service employees with high levels of the three elements are more likely to instill customers with positive emotions that enhance overall satisfaction with services/products (Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & Taylor, 2002; Puccinelli, Motyka, & Grewal, 2010).

4) Self perceived decision-making authority

According to Hennig-Thurau (2004), service employees' self-perceived decision-making authority is defined as the extent to which service employees have the authority to make decisions in terms of customers' interests and needs. The same author also argued that the concept of self-perceived decision-making authority is certainly different from the empowerment concept because decision-making authority is regarded as a subjective decision authority. In contrast, employee empowerment is the objective authority given by the organization. Therefore, service employees tend to be motivated to provide high-quality customer service when they have more subjective decision authority (Hennig-Thurau & Thurau, 2003; Kim & Ok, 2010). In addition, service employees with high levels of authority in the decision-making process are more likely to provide fast service because obtaining authorization during the service delivery is unnecessary (Chebat, 2003), which leads to both employee satisfaction (Wright et al., 1997; Muindi, 2011) and customer satisfaction (Hennig-Thurau, 2004; Kim & Ok, 2010).

2. Emotional attachment to the casino dealers

Emotional attachment refers to the strength of the bond connecting a person with a particular target (Bowlby, 1979). The target can be either people (e.g. family or friends) or objects (e.g. car or house). The theoretical background of emotional attachment is supported by the attachment theory, which originated from the field of psychology (e.g. Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Bowlby, 1979; Hazan & Shaver, 1994). This theory suggests that humans are inherently more likely to rely on other people or objects when they are going through difficult times. Under such circumstances, humans try to establish psychological bonds with other people or objects, which are consoling to them (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). More importantly, emotional attachment leads to dedicated behavior (Albert, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2008; Hazan & Shaver, 1994). That is, if people have a strong bond with a certain person or object, they are more likely to advocate or support the person or object.

First, this study proposed a relationship between technical skills and emotional attachment. Skilled employees are very good at their work, so customers have a pleasant time, leading to the enhancement of relationship between customers and employees (Kim & Ok, 2010; Williams & Spiro, 1985). That is, if casino dealers lead a smooth operation without making mistakes during the game, casino players will have high levels of emotional attachment to the casino dealers. In addition, employees with high levels of job knowledge provide appropriate and useful advice, which forms a favorable relationship with customers (Biedenbach, Bengtsson, & Wincen, 2011; Kim et al., 2011). Thus, if casino dealers provide important and beneficial advice during the game, casino players are emotionally attached to the casino dealers. Integrating the theoretical background, the first hypothesis was proposed.

H_1: A casino dealer's technical skills positively influence a casino player's emotional attachment to the casino dealer.

Highly sociable employees make a great deal of effort to fulfill customers' needs, causing customers to have a strong bond with employees (Goodwin & Gremler, 1996; Kim & Ok, 2010). In addition, employees with high levels of social skills treat customers well, which makes their customers feel that they have received supportive care (Hwang, Kim, & Hyun, 2013). The casino industry is no exception to this argument. For example, if casino dealers try to satisfy players' needs during the game, the players will feel that they have special treatment. Consequently, casino players have a strong emotional attachment to casino dealers. Based on the theoretical background, the following hypothesis is proposed regarding the following relationship between social skills and emotional attachment.

H_2: A casino dealer's social skills positively influence a casino player's emotional attachment to the casino dealer.

Given that one of the significant components of the motivation dimension is the employee's self-perception of being able to behave in a customer-oriented way (Hennig-Thurau, 2004), suggesting that highly motivated employees are more likely to be cautious and see themselves from their customer's perspective when delivering services. More importantly, such customer-orientated behavior creates a strong customer-employee attachment (Hennig-Thurau & Thurau, 2003; Kim & Ok, 2010). That is, if casino dealers do their best to satisfy casino players' needs during the game, the players are emotionally attached to the dealers. Following this logic, it can be theorized that motivation induces emotional attachment.

H_3: A casino dealer's motivation positively influences a casino player's emotional attachment to the casino dealer.

Next, this study suggests a positive relationship between self perceived decision-making authority and emotional attachment based on the following inferences. Employees with high levels of decision-making authority take greater responsibility for their job (Gazzoli, Hancer, & Park, 2010; Lashley, 1999). Furthermore, such a responsibility gets employees to work harder, so they will try to provide a much better service, which aids in the development of enjoyable interaction and personal connection with their customers (Hennig-Thurau, 2004; Kim & Ok, 2010). Therefore, if casino dealers have greater authority for decision-making, casino players will have a close relationship with the dealers, which in turn enhances emotional attachment with the dealers. Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis was made.

H_4: A casino dealer's decision-making authority positively influences a casino player's emotional attachment to the casino dealer.

3. Loyalty

The concept of loyalty has received wide-ranging attention from scholars. Loyalty can be defined as "a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior" (Oliver, 1997, p. 392), suggesting that loyalty is not just repurchase behavior but devoted repurchase behavior.

When customers show a strong bond with the employees of a company, they tend to remain loyal to the company (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999). In other words, if casino players are emotionally attached to dealers of a certain casino, they are more likely to visit the casino in the future. Previous empirical studies also have examined the relationship between emotional attachment and loyalty. For instance, Thomson, MacInnis, and Park (2005) proposed a research model in order to identify the effect of emotional attachment on loyalty. The results of data analysis indicated that emotional attachment is a critical factor affecting loyalty. In addition, Hyun and Kim (2014) investigated a theoretical relationship between emotional attachment and loyalty (i.e. enhancement, cooperation, and advocacy) using empirical data collected from restaurant patrons and found that emotional attachment has a positive influence on loyalty. Based on existing theoretical backgrounds, this study proposed the following hypothesis.

H_5: A casino player's emotional attachment to the casino dealer positively influences loyalty.

III. Methodology

1. Measurement

In order to measure the proposed constructs, validated multi-item scales were derived from previous studies. More specifically, COSE was measured with 12 items under four constructs (i.e. technical skills, social skills, motivation, and decision-making authority) employed by Hennig-Thurau (2004) and Kim and Ok (2010). Emotional attachment was measured using six items cited from Cicirelli (1995) and Hyun and Kim (2014). Lastly, loyalty was measured with three items employed by Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, and Gremler (2002) and Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996). A five-point Likert-type scale, anchored from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5), was used in designing all questions.

2. Data collection

The survey questionnaire was distributed to casino table game players in Korea using an online survey company's system. First, respondents started with the following screening question: "Have you played a casino table game in Korea within the past twelve months?" Next, they were given a question about what kinds of table game he or she had played most recently. Based on the selected table game, they were asked to answer all questions. A total of 3,504 questionnaires were distributed to table game players. Among them, 569 people answered the questionnaire. In addition, 89 outliers were excluded after conducting a Mahalanobis distance check and visual inspection. Consequently, 480 usable responses were used to test the proposed model.

IV. Data analysis

1. Profile of the sample

Among 480 respondents, 350 (72.9%) were male and 130 (27.1%) were female. The average age was 38.43 years old. Regarding education, 66.0% of the respondents held bachelor's degrees. With regard to marital status, 309 (64.4%) were married. Finally, 33.9% of respondents reported a monthly income between US$4,000- US$5,999.

2. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

CFA is a statistical technique that checks how well the measurements represent the proposed constructs. The CFA results showed an overall good fit of the measurement model (NFI = .975, CFI = .988, IFI = .988, TLI = .985, RMSEA = .042) (Byrne, 2001). Table 1 shows the specific variables with their standardized factor loadings. Factor loadings were all significant ($p < .01$) and were over .849.

As shown in Table 2, the results of composite reliability for the multi-item scales range from .916 to .950, suggesting that all of the constructs had acceptable internal consistency (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). In addition, the average variance extracted (AVE) for all constructs clearly exceeded the suggested cutoff of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2006), suggesting that the convergent validity was acceptable. Lastly, discriminant validity was also satisfactory, as the squared correlation (R^2) between pairs of constructs was less than the AVE of each construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

3. Structural Equation Modeling

The proposed model with six constructs was examined by structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis. The results of fit indices showed that the proposed model had a good fit (NFI = .974, CFI = .987, IFI = .987, TLI = .985, RMSEA=.043) (Byrne, 2001). Table 3 provides the SEM results with standardized path coefficients. The results of SEM indicated that among the five proposed hypotheses, four hypotheses (H_1, H_2, H_4, and H_5) were accepted, while hypothesis 3 was rejected.

Table 1. Confirmatory factor analysis: items and loadings

Construct and scale item	*Standardized Loadinga*
COSE (The dealer(s) of the table game⋯)	
Technical skills	
Has(have) a high level of job knowledge.	.893
Is(are) experts in their job.	.850
Is(are) highly competent.	.927
Social Skills	
Has(have) extensive social skills.	.897
Is(are) able to consider their customers' perspective.	.922
Know(s) how to treat a customer well.	.899
Motivation	
Show(s) strong commitment to their job.	.887
Do(es) their best to fulfill their customers' needs.	.906
Is(are) always highly motivated.	.891
Decision-making authority	
Is(are) allowed to decide autonomously in customer matters.	.882
Has(have) appropriate room for maneuver in solving customer problems.	.904
Do(es) not need to ask their superior for permission in the case of customer requests.	.871
Emotional attachment to the dealer(s)	
The dealer(s) at the table game make(s) me very happy.	.913
When I play the table game, I feel that I can trust the dealer(s) completely.	.864
I have a passionate interest in the dealer(s).	.849
If someone praised the dealer(s), I would feel pleased.	.868
When I play the table game, I have faith in the dealer's advice/suggestions.	.861
I would feel sorry if the dealer(s) quit his/her/their job(s).	.871
Loyalty	
I would like to use this casino more often.	.894
I would like to revisit this casino in the future.	.905
I say positive things about this casino to others.	.886

Note: [a] All factors loadings are significant at $p < .001$.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and associated measures

	No. of items	*Mean (S.D)*	*AVE*	*(1)*	*(2)*	*(3)*	*(4)*	*(5)*	*(6)*
(1) Technical skills	3	3.86 (. 92)	.793	.920a	.621b	.645	.622	.623	.654
(2) Social skills	3	4.12 (.84)	.821	.386c	.932	.722	.701	.712	.642
(3) Motivation	3	3.90 (.86)	.800	.416	.521	.923	.689	.615	.703
(4) Decision-making authority	3	3.94 (.93)	.785	.387	.491	.475	.916	.711	.688
(5) Emotional attachment	6	3.64 (.94)	.759	.388	.507	.378	.506	.950	.711
(6) Loyalty	3	3.65 (.96)	.801	.428	.412	.494	.473	.506	.924
Goodness-of-fit statistics: χ^2=312.175, df=168, p<.001, χ^2/df=1.858, NFI=.975, CFI=.988, IFI=.988, TLI=.985, RMSEA=.042									

Notes 1: AVE: average variance extracted estimate; NFI: Normed Fit Index; CFI: Comparative Fit Index; IFI: Incremental Fit Index; TLI: Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Notes 2: All correlations among study variables are significant at $p < 0.01$.

Notes 3: [a] Composite reliabilities are along the diagonal, b correlations are above the diagonal, and c squared correlations are below the diagonal.

Table 3. Standardized parameter estimates for structural model

	Standardized Estimate	*t-value*	*Hypothesis*
H_1 Technical skills → Emotional attachment	.262	2.599	Supported
H_2 Social Skills → Emotional attachment	.485	3.391	Supported
H_3 Motivation → Emotional attachment	.081	.584	Not supported
H_4 Decision-making authority → Emotional attachment	.234	2.388	Supported
H_5 Emotional attachment → Loyalty	.845	14.427	Supported
Goodness-of-fit statistics: χ^2=326.149, df=173, p<.001, χ^2/df=1.885, NFI=.974, CFI=.987, IFI=.987, TLI=.985, RMSEA=.043			

Note: AVE: average variance extracted estimate; NFI: Normed Fit Index; CFI: Comparative Fit Index; IFI: Incremental Fit Index; TLI: Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

V. Discussion and implications

The aim of this study was to explore the role of COSE in the relationship between casino players and dealers. More specifically, it was hypothesized that the four types of COSE help to enhance emotional attachment to casino dealers. In addition, it was proposed that emotional attachment to the casino dealers positively affects loyalty. To achieve the proposed objectives, a total of six constructs were used and then a structural model was developed based on the theoretical relationships among those constructs. The structural model was evaluated by data collected from 480 casino players in Korea.

The results of data analysis indicated that three types of COSE play a critical role in the formation of emotional attachment to casino dealers. First, technical skills had a positive influence on emotional attachment to casino dealers (.262, p < .05), suggesting that casino players are more likely to be emotionally attached to casino dealers who have a high level of job knowledge. In the history of COSE research, scholars have proved the role of technical skills as an important predictor of customer satisfaction (e.g. Hennig-Thurau, 2004; Kim & Ok, 2010). Unlike previous studies, this study first tried to examine the effect of technical skills on emotional attachment to the casino dealers. In this regard, this study confirmed the significance of technical skills and extended the existing literature by finding the relationship between technical skills and emotional attachment to casino dealers.

This finding also has practical implications. First of all, the result emphasized the importance of training and education system. Especially, new casino dealers need to have sufficient training to be experts in their job, which helps to reduce mistakes during the game. It is also necessary to periodically assess the level of knowledge and skill of dealers with experience because a smooth operation without making mistakes during the game enhances casino company's profits (Suh & Tsai, 2013). More importantly, such training and education system play an important role in making dealers satisfied with their jobs, which will decrease turnover intentions (Back, Lee, & Abbott, 2010). Lastly, a tough schedule makes it difficult for casino dealers to perform their jobs properly, which leads them to make mistakes (Wong & Lam, 2013), so a well-organized schedule is required for dealers.

Second, the data analysis result showed that social skills have a major influence on emotional attachment to casino dealers (.485, p < .05). The importance of social skills has long been verified in diverse industries (e.g. Hennig-Thurau & Thurau, 2003, Kim & Ok, 2010), suggesting that employee social skills arouse positive customer feelings. This study tried to explore and find another role of social skills in the relationship between casino players and casino dealers rather than focusing on its relationship with customers' feelings. The finding can be interpreted such that casino players are more likely to have a strong emotional attachment to casino dealers when they feel that the dealers have extensive social skills.

It is commonly known that casino dealers require a variety of technical skills; however, the result of this study emphasized that social skills are another important aspect of casino dealers. In particular, some table players who lose money are in a bad mood, so casino dealers need more sociable in order to cope well with such a difficult situation. From a managerial standpoint, it is very important to evaluate the level of sociability through in-depth interviews when recruiting new casino dealers (e.g. Hwang et al., 2013; Kang & Hyun, 2012). In addition, it is recommended that casinos hire dealers based on the results of a personality test such as the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Such a personality test would be a good indicator in assessing the level of sociability. Lastly, if casinos allow table game players to choose sociable dealers, which reflect the dealers' performance appraisal, it is useful and helpful in enhancing the level of sociability.

Third, the data analysis also suggested that decision-making authority is a critical determinant of emotional attachment to casino dealers (.234, $p < .05$). The existing literature supports the important role of decision-making authority in satisfying customers (e.g. Chebat, 2003; Hennig-Thurau, 2004; Kim & Ok, 2010). In particular, they argued that service employees having high levels of decision-making authority offer services without delay, so they are more likely to be satisfied. Unlike previous studies, the current study tried to focus on the contribution of the decision-making authority to casino players and casino dealers relationship development for the first time. That is, casino table players are emotionally attached to casino dealers when they feel that the dealers have greater authority for decision-making. In this respect, this study further extended the theoretical background of decision-making authority by empirically finding the effects of decision-making authority on emotional attachment to the casino dealers.

This finding has practical implications as well. A delay problem due to the superior's permission can create table game player dissatisfaction, so it is recommended to strengthen the casino dealer's authority, which helps to speed up the game without delay. In addition, players requirement issues often occur during the game, so casino dealers need to be well acquainted themselves with their decision-making authority, which leads to offer better services (Hennig-Thurau & Thurau, 2003; Kim & Ok, 2010).

Fourth, the data analysis result revealed that emotional attachment to casino dealers enhances loyalty. This finding is consistent with previous studies (e.g. Hyun & Kim, 2014; Thomson et al., 2005), suggesting the effect of emotional attachment on loyalty. This study also found the important role of emotional attachment in the formation of loyalty. This allows the conclusion that when the players are emotionally attached to the dealers, they are more likely to revisit the casino in the future and say positive things about the casino to others. Therefore, if casinos develop effective customer service strategies that offer strong emotional attachment to casino dealers, casino players will have high levels of loyalty.

Despite of the significant theoretical and practical implications, there are limitations. The data using in this study was collected from casino players in Korea, so it is difficult to generalize the results of this study to other types of industries and countries. Future research needs to apply the proposed model to other industries and countries, leading to a wide range of applications.

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The effects of corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives on brand image, brand prestige, and behavioral intention

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Abstract

This study aims to verify the effects of hotel corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives on perceived brand image, brand prestige, and customer behavioral intention. The research questions are outlined below. (1) What effect does hotel CSR initiatives have on brand image as perceived by customers? (2) What effect does corporate brand image have on brand prestige and customer behavioral intention? (3) What effect does the prestige of corporate brands have on customer behavioral intention? To answer these three questions, CSR initiatives were divided into four activities based on literature review, and hypotheses were developed to determine their effects on brand image, brand prestige, and behavioral intention. A total of 332 completed questionnaires were used to test the hypotheses. Of the seven hypotheses, six were accepted and one was rejected. Specifically, most of the sub factors of organizational social responsibility activities had significant positive effects on brand and customer behavioral intention. Theoretical and practical implications of the findings are further discussed in the conclusion section.

Key words: Corporate social responsibility, Legal CSR, Economic CSR, Philanthropic CSR, Ethical CSR, Brand image, Brand prestige, Behavioral intention

I. Introduction

Recently, issue of sustainability has emerged as a new management paradigm. Now practicing Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities for a firm is almost a mandatory. In order for firms with CSR reputation continue to participate in CSR activities, CSR has to be included in management philosophy of the firms. According to Werther & Chandler (2005), a firm's CSR is both a 'process' and a 'goal' as a firm manages its legitimacy by conforming to social welfare standards and satisfy its goal to continue to grow when firm's business activities respect social responsibilities. Also, Kitzmueller & Shimshck (2012) stated firm's CSR is achieved when a firm voluntarily embrace societal and environmental interest in their business activities with their stakeholders' interaction and support.

Definition of a firm's CSR has been defined differently for different decades. From 1950s through1960s, a firm's CSR was to maximize financial benefit, and from 1960s through 1970s a firm's CSR was to be responsible for corporate liability. During 1960s through 1970s, firms' main strategy was to respond to environmental and safety restrictions. During 1980s and 1990s, a firm's moral responsibilities were emphasized. And post 1990s into the 2000s, CSR was defined as a social obligation and standards to be practiced with firms' employees and members of society.

A reason why many firms nowadays actively participate in CSR activities is because of firms' brand image (Falck & Heblich, 2007). This is because as technology advances it is difficult to differentiate firms' product or service by its

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quality. Also, similar products multiply real time in the SNS-era that a firm's brand prestige and image are valued more than any time before to differentiate its product with other brands' product. Once a firm gains a positive brand image by the society through their active participation in CSR activities, negative image will be offset if a firm gets in a crisis (Yoon & Cho, 2005). Customers will quickly accept a firm's apology as they are less worried of a firm's repeated mismanagement (Lee & Lee, 2002), since a firm's CSR activities act as a mediator to the brand image and reputation, positively influencing customer's brand recognition and purchase intention (Heo & Chung, 2011).

Service industry firm's CSR is intangible and is always involved with simultaneity of service (Chung, Park, & Oh, 2011), firm's social responsibility is directly influential on how customers value the firm; customers' trust, evaluation on firms' service, and brand loyalty is positively influenced (Chmvilailuk & Butcher, 2010). Thus, hotels, which is one of the major business in service industry, put in great effort to create prestige image of its brand's service and products by gaining trust of customers, employees, investors, partners, and media, etc. (Hotel & Restaurant, 2014).

Prior studies on influences of hotel's CSR activities on brand image mostly researched of Effects of Hotel Businesses' Perceived Corporate Social Responsibility Activities on Their Corporate Image, Customer Satisfaction and Behavioral Intention (Chang & Seo, 2017), The Effects on the Hotel Image Influence to Hotel Customers' Utility Values and Revisit Intention based on Corporate Social Responsibility (Park & Lee, 2013), Effects of Hotel's Corporate Social Responsibility Activities on Their Corporate Image and Purchase Intention (Han & Seo, 2016) but effects of hotel's CSR activities on brand image, brand prestige, and behavior intention are not much studied.

For this reason, the study will look into effects of hotel's CSR activities on brand image and how created brand image affects brand prestige and behavior intention. Also, the study will verify the indirect effect of brand image and brand prestige on behavior intention.

The study will undertake empirical research on how CSR activities of hotel affects brand image, brand prestige, and brand loyalty using verified variables from prior studies. The study will also present the reason for the need of continuous interest and participation in CSR activities of hotels, contributing important implications how brand image that customers' have is positively related to brand prestige and behavior intention.

II. Literature review

1. Values of CSR in hospitality

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is an issue that affects not only employees in workplaces but also customers and communities. Thus, CSR is often described as the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life, of the workforce, and their families, as well as of the local community and society at large (Levy & Park, 2011; World Business Council for Sustainable Development, 1999). It is also considered a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis (Levy & Park, 2011). Because CSR includes issues on inequality in workplaces, diversity in workplaces, data protection, and many more, these CSR activities bring both financial and nonfinancial benefits. For this reason, many corporations continue to put in unprecedented efforts in CSR.

Over the last decade, CSR has emerged as a global trend in our society. Leading corporations in various industries, public offices, and society and communities as a whole have started to participate in CSR activities. According to Kang, Lee, and Huh (2010) "General Electric started "Ecomagination" as its strategic key word (Business Wire, 2005) and ever since has continued to prepare extensive reports on environmental issues. HSBC [also] announced a carbon neutral initiative, showing its commitment to CSR for climate change problems (BBC News, 2008), while in 2008, Wal-Mart launched its new jewelry line called "Love, Earth" in which Wal-Mart only uses gold, silver and diamonds from mines and manufacturers that meet sustainability standards established by Wal-Mart (Fibre2fashion, 2008; Kang et al, 2010). CSR continues to be the growing concern for both participating companies and unparticipating companies and hospitality industry is also prioritizing this emerging trend.

Many corporations in hospitality industries also continue to take actions to make social and environmental processes. A number of CSR and environmental news items on a hospitality industry web site such as Hospitality Net has increased from 63 in 1999 to 139 in 2007 with 10.4% compound annual growth rate while the number of overall news increased with just a 2.8% compound annual growth rate (Kang et al, 2010). More leading hospitality companies, including Hilton, Starwood, Choice Hotels, Starbucks and McDonald's, exclusively provide CSR related reports (Kang et al., 2010).

However, the most common and visible CSR activities these corporations participate are limited to sustainability. Restaurants and lodging industries often participate in utilizing environment-friendly products, food composting, and re-use of beddings and towels. These green activities promoting firms not only make financial benefit but also generate non- financial benefit. By practicing green activities, these firms cut operating cost from recycling and reusing of amenities and also cut cost training their employees as the turnover rate of employees at CSR practicing firms are known to be lower. Hotels that execute and communicate CSR efforts to current and potential employees can lower staff turnover, strengthen employee engagement, raise staff morale, and better recruit high-performing candidates (e.g., Bader, 2005; Bohdanowicz & Zientara, 2008; Huimin & Ryan, 2011; Levy & Park, 2011; Shaw et al., 2006). Customers also tend to trust firms that are aware of CSR activities. CSR also offers a key marketing advantage over competitors (Atakan & Eker, 2007; Butler, 2008; Williams, Grill, & Ponsford, 2007) and can improve hotel image and reputation (Bader, 2005; Bird et al.,2007; Bohdanowicz, 2005; Han, Hsu, & Lee, 2009; Kirk, 1995; Mair & Jago, 2010), which will lead to a better financial performance (Levy & Park, 2011). Non-financial benefits of CSR will mostly be environmental benefits created by the green practices and charitable giving to communities. CSR activities other than sustainability activities can also generate other benefits such as product safety, data privacy, etc. that corporations will continue to promote CSR initiatives.

2. CSR pyramid

The most widely used CSR construct is Carroll's pyramid of CSR. The four-part structure of Carroll's CSR pyramid consists of economic CSR, legal CSR, philanthropic CSR, and ethical CSR. The graphic depiction of CSR pyramid can be easily found online as well over 100 variations and reproductions of the pyramidal model are presented and over 5200 citations of the original article are listed on web (Carroll, 2016). However, according to Khan et al., (2012), a variety of definitions of CSR have been proposed but a fundamental problem in the field of CSR is that no clear, universally accepted definition of the concept is given but there is no overall agreement or consensus in the ideal meaning of CSR making theoretical development.

The simplest definition of CSR is by Elhauge (2005) that it is sacrificing profits in the social interest, meaning that companies have to go beyond legal obligations and be voluntary (Khan et al., 2012). According to Abd Rahim, et al. (2011) CSR can be defined as treating the stakeholders of the firm ethically or in a responsible manner. Also, Ismail (2011) reported that Bowen and Johnson (1953) identified as the pioneer in providing the modern literature on CSR, offered one of the earliest definitions seeing CSR as the obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society (Khan et al., 2012). Nonetheless, this paper will focus on the most widely accepted Carroll's CSR pyramid.

One of the four definitions of Carroll's pyramid of CSR, legal responsibility, refers to the CSR activities within the framework of the law (Carroll, 1991). Society has sanctioned to operate business under federal, state, and local governments' law (Carroll, 1991). Businesses are required to follow the ground rules, fulfilling legal responsibilities (Carroll, 2016). The legal responsibilities reflect the codified ethics of society (Carroll, 2016). Whether CSR in developing countries follow a legal and regulatory framework or not significantly affects the multinationals to invest or not as these legal infrastructures are vital component for legitimate business growth (Carroll, 2016). Thus, a company fulfilling legal responsibility is likely to have better brand image and prestige as society expects businesses to obey the laws and follow regulations (He & Lai, 2015).

In order for a business to exist in our society, businesses must have economic responsibilities. Economic responsibility, the bottom tier of the pyramid, requires businesses to be able to sustain themselves by making profits. In its origins, society views business organizations as institutions that will produce and sell the goods and services it needs and desires (Carroll, 2016). Thus, society expects and requires business to profit not only themselves but also all the stakeholders of the business (Carroll, 2016). Businesses that are not performing well economically go out of business that the economic responsibility is a baseline requirement that must be met in a competitive business world (Carroll, 2016). For this reason, one can easily portray financially successful businesses will have better image and prestige for their businesses and the same will apply to the hotel industry.

Philanthropic responsibility, the top tier of the pyramid, refers to all forms of corporate giving (Carroll, 2016). According to Carroll, corporate giving is voluntary or discretionary activities. However, it is normally expected by businesses today and is a part of the everyday expectations of the public (Carroll, 2016). According to Carroll (1991), some firms feel they are being socially responsible if they are just good citizens in the community while other firms feel responsible to share their money, facilities, and employee time. Because philanthropic CSR is not required and totally discretionary, corporates with good philanthropic CSR activities will have very good image and prestige in our society.

Ethical responsibility of corporates refers to activities that are expected or prohibited by societal members even though they are not codified into law (Carroll, 1991). Society expects businesses to operate in ethical manner. In other words, businesses will be expected to be responsible for and responsive to the full range of norms, standards, values, principles, and expectations that reflect and honor what consumers, employees, owners, and the community regard as consistent with respect to the protection of stakeholders' moral rights (Carroll, 2016). Therefore, society prefers businesses that are ethical, which fulfill the expectation. Also, according to He and Lai (2015), consumers' ethical purchasing may be understood as being 'an expression of the individual's moral judgment in his or her purchase behavior (Freestone & McGoldrick, 2008; He & Lai, 2015). Thus, when business brand behaves in ethical manner, consumers are likely to infer that it has certain desirable traits that resonate with their sense of self that when they choose the brand, consumers enhance their self-esteem and consider themselves as more ethical (He & Lai, 2015). The four graphical definitions of Carroll's CSR pyramid all affects brands promoting CSR initiatives that the following hypothesis can be reached.

H_1: Legal CSR has a positive influence on brand image and brand prestige.

H_2: Economic CSR has a positive influence on brand image and brand prestige.

H_3: Philanthropic CSR has a positive influence on brand image and brand prestige.

H_4: Ethical CSR has a positive influence on brand image and brand prestige.

3. Brand Image

Brand image is whatever that come to one when a certain brand is brought up and thus is closely linked with customer's memory (Saleem & Raja, 2014). Thus, brand image often influences customer's purchases and repurchases, affecting brand loyalty. Good brand image of one company to a society can be a great asset to the company.

Brand image can be classified into two major categories: functional and symbolic (Park, Jaworski, & Macinnis, 1986; He & Lai, 2015). Functional image indicates tangible features of a product, and symbolic image represents intangible features, reflecting consumers' social approval, self-expression or self-esteem (He & Lai, 2015). Functional image establishes the advantages of consuming a certain product as a product will be of certain quality. Positive functional image may satisfy consumers' basic motivations such as solving or avoiding problems so as to increase the perceived benefits from a brand (He & Lai, 2015; Herrmann et al., 2007; Johnson et al., 2001). Symbolic image is the extrinsic advantage of product consumption, which corresponds to non-product-related attributes and is associated with the basic need for social approval or individual expression (He & Lai, 2015; Park et al., 1986). Consumers would like to purchase a brand product which has good social image to benefit themselves in terms of self-identification. Thus, consumers will make repeat purchases of certain brands with good brand images, creating brand prestige. If certain brands are considered prestigious brands customers will eventually show loyalty to that branded products. For these reasons, following hypothesis was reached:

H_5: Brand image has a positive influence on brand prestige.

H_6: Brand image has a positive influence on behavior intention.

4. Brand Prestige

Positioning of a product high status is brand prestige (McCarthy & Perreault, 1987; Steenkamp, Batra, & Alden, 2003; Hwang & Han, 2014). To position a product to be prestigious, the product has to enhance social values when acquired (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Hwang & Han, 2014). According to Vigneron and Johnson (2004), prestige brand can be categorized into (1) upmarket brands, (2) premium brands, and (3) luxury brands based on brand prestige level (Hwang & Han, 2014). Acquiring a product with brand prestige, consumers will feel they belong to the upper classes (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Hwang & Han, 2014). Products such as Hermes Birkin bags, McLaren cars, and Rolex watches are few of the products from prestigious brands. People often buy these products not because of necessities but to position themselves in upper class/prestigious society that they accept high prices they are paying. For this reason number of luxury brands, hotel markets will continue to put in efforts to create brand prestige as “consumers willingly accept the high prices and make decisions to purchase” brand prestige products (Steenkamp et al, 2003; Hwang & Han, 2014). Thus, brand prestige can be the determinants of behavioral intention:

H_7: Brand prestige has a positive influence on behavioral intention.

5. Behavior Intention

Behavior intention is often described as “an affirmed likelihood to engage in a certain behavior” (Ryu, Han, & Jang, 2010). Thus, in Ryu et al. (2010) research, behavior intention was described as a stated likelihood to revisit the restaurant and to recommend it to friends and family (Ryu, et al., 2010). This study will therefore define behavior intention as revisit intention of hotels participating in CSR activities and recommendation to others. Thus, we can say behavior intention is closely intertwined with firms’ revenue. As a firm will be able to quantify behavioral intention in monetary terms (Tanford, Raab & Kim, 2011).

Behavior intention can be favorable and unfavorable according to Ladhari (2009). Favorable behavioral intention “include positive word of mouth (saying positive things and recommending the service to others), paying a price premium, spending more money with the company, and remaining loyal” (Ladhari, 2009). However, unfavorable behavior intention will be the opposite. This research will thus assume CSR participating hotel will positively influence brand image and brand prestige that customers will show favorable behavior intention.

For this reason, this research will take a look at how four components of CSR, brand image, and brand prestige have affected the repeat purchases at a hotel, in other words, behavioral loyalty. Following research may also indirectly generate new findings on monetary effects of behavioral loyalty.

6. Conceptual Model and Hypothesis

Our theoretical model is presented in figure below. The model includes four dimensions of Carroll’s CSR pyramid (legal, economic, philanthropic, and ethical), brand image, brand loyalty and behavior loyalty. Hypothesis 1-7 are related to the theoretical relationships of the conceptual model.

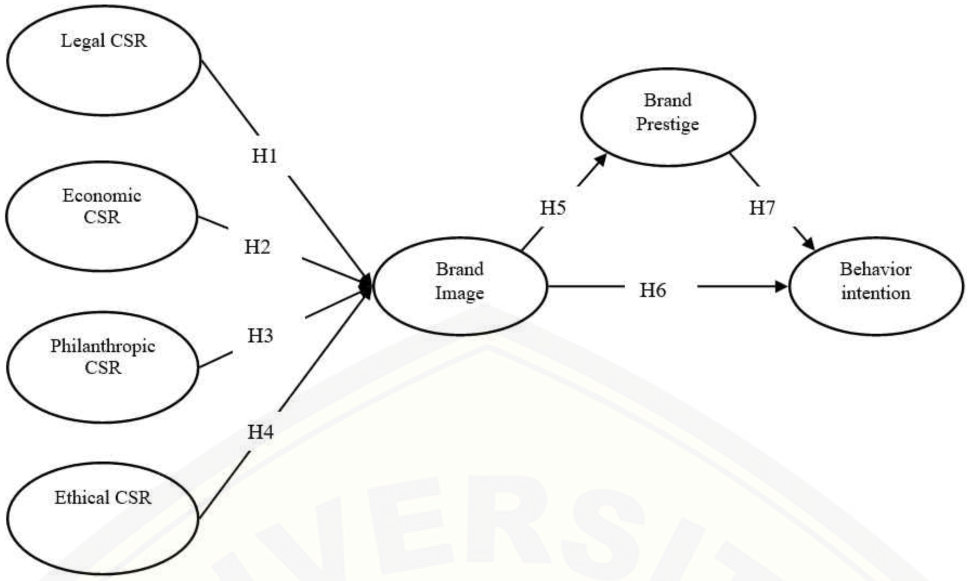

Figure 1. Proposed research model

III. Methodology

1. Measurements and Questionnaire Development

In order to test our proposed model, questionnaire items were developed based on previous researches. Survey contained 14 questions on CSR responsibilities. Which were divided into legal, economic, philanthropic, and ethical from Carroll (1979) and Lee et al., (2012).Three questions on brand image were from Kucukusta, Mak, and Chan (2013) and Wu and Wang (2014), and three questions on brand prestige were based on Baek, Kim, and Yu (2010). Last three questions of survey on behavior intention were from Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Han et al., (2009)'s researches. All measurement variables were assessed using a seven point Likert type scale (1= strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree). Before conducting preliminary test of final questionnaires, pilot test was conducted with 15 School of Hospitality Management graduate students and professors.

2. Data Collection

Data were collected from hotel customers who have visited hotel inside or outside Korea within one year. Survey was online, self-administered, and persisted roughly two months since August 14, 2018 through October 14, 2018. Survey link was delivered to potential survey participants by the authors and variety of targets participated in the survey. The survey took roughly 10 minutes for the completion of survey. A total of 350 surveys collected and 18 incomplete surveys were considered invalid that total of 332 surveys were utilized in data analysis. Data were analyzed using two step analysis by SPSS 22.0 and AMOS 22.0. Before the two step analysis, frequency analysis were first performed to present general characteristics of the sample. Then, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed to identify measurement variables' reliability. Testing the hypothesis and conceptual model, regression analysis was performed.

IV. Result

1. Sample Profile

Frequency test was performed to study the sample profile and results are as follow. 57.2 percent (190) of total respondents were male and 42.8 percent (142) were female. 57.2 percent were in their 30s, 27.1 percent in their 20s, 8.7 percent in 40s, 5.7 percent in 50s, and 1.2 percent in 60s. Most of respondents showed high level of education, 71.7 percent

(238) of total respondents were bachelor degree holder, 23.2 percent (77) were master or doctoral degree holder. Only 17 percent (17) were high school graduates. Income level was diverse but 132 respondents, which is 39.8%, of total earned about $40,000-55,000 per year. The most common reason of hotel visits was rooms with 210 respondents, 63.3 percent of the total. Restaurant with 97 respondents, 29.2 percent, café with 12 respondents, 3.6 percent, and other reasons were 11, roughly about 3.3 percent. Majority of respondents were businessmen, including government employee, with 195, about 58.7 percent of total and marital status were pretty even. Single being 169, 50.9 percent, and married being 163, 49.1 percent.

2. Confirmatory Factory Analysis

In order to test the validity of conceptual model, maximum likelihood estimation method were utilized on collected data to perform Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Findings are as follow. Conceptual model was proven to be statistically valid with (χ^2=546.340, df=188, χ^2/df=2.906, CFI=.960, TLI=.951, IFI=.960, RMSEA=.076). Also, to test measurement variables' convergent validity and internal consistency average variance extracted and composite reliability were examined. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), Convergent validity with AVE value of 0.5 or over and internal consistency with 0.7 or over is considered valid, finding showed AVE values were between 0.638 and 0.822 CR values were between 0.841 and 0.959. For this reason, measurement variables passed both convergent validity and CR test. Also, presented AVE was higher than squared correlation coefficient of latent variables that findings also satisfied discriminant validity test, as shown in table 3 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

3. Hypothesis Testing

In order to test hypothesis, AMOS 22.0 were used to perform regression analysis. Maximum likelihood estimation were used to test validity of conceptual model (χ^2=568.412, df=196, χ^2/df=2.90, RMSEA=.076, CFI=.958, IFI=.959, TLI=.951) and this result were shown to be very positive. Also, R^2 of brand image (0.854), brand prestige (0.796), behavior intention (0.835) were all shown

Table 1. Confirmatory factor analysis results and between-construct correlations

	Legal CSR	*Economic CSR*	*Philanthropic CSR*	*Ethical CSR*	*Brand image*	*Brand prestige*	*Behavior loyalty*
Legal CSR	1.000						
Economic CSR	.729[a] (.531)[b]	1.000					
Philanthropic CSR	.661 (.436)	.665 (.442)	1.000				
Ethical CSR	.754 (.568)	.795 (.632)	.725 (.525)	1.000			
Brand image	.694 (.481)	.746 (.556)	.758 (.574)	.775 (.600)	1.000		
Brand prestige	.633 (.400)	.708 (.501)	.646 (.417)	.721 (.519)	.785 (.616)	1.000	
Behavior loyalty	.660 (.435)	.691 (.477)	.675 (.455)	.714 (.509)	.770 (.592)	.794 (.630)	1.000
CR (AVE)	.860 (.673)	.841 (.638)	.913 (.778)	.923 (.799)	.959 (.822)	.931 (.819)	.844 (.643)
Mean (SD)	5.932 (.987)	5.940 (.890)	5.884 (.958)	6.006 (.853)	5.994 (.893)	6.182 (.857)	6.137 (.923)

Note: Goodness-of-fit statistics: χ^2=546.340, df=188, p<.001, χ^2/df=2.906, RMSEA=.076, CFI=.960, IFI=.960, TLI=.951

[a] Correlations between variables are below the diagonal.

[b] Squared correlations between variables are within parentheses.

Table 2. Structural equation modeling results and hypotheses testing

	Independent variables		*Dependent variables*	*Coefficients*	*t-values*
H_1	Legal CSR	→	Brand image	.037	.626
H_2	Economic CSR	→	Brand image	.272	3.333***
H_3	Philanthropic CSR	→	Brand image	.372	6.494***
H_4	Ethical CSR	→	Brand image	.305	3.121**
H_5	Brand image	→	Brand prestige	.892	19.840***
H_6	Brand image	→	Behavior loyalty	.420	5.472***
H_7	Brand prestige	→	Behavior loyalty	.519	6.675***
	Total variance explained		***Indirect impact***		***Goodness-of-fit statistics***
	R^2 for brand image = .854		$\beta_{\text{legal CSR - brand image - brand prestige}}$ = .033		χ^2=568.412,
	R^2 for brand prestige = .796		$\beta_{\text{economic CSR - brand image - brand prestige}}$ = .242*		df=196,
	R^2 for behavior loyalty = .835		$\beta_{\text{philanthropic CSR - brand image - brand prestige}}$ = .332**		p<.001,
			$\beta_{\text{ethical CSR - brand image - brand prestige}}$ = .272		χ^2/df=2.900,
	*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001		$\beta_{\text{legal CSR - brand image - brand prestige - behavior intention}}$ = .033		RMSEA=.076,
			$\beta_{\text{economic CSR - brand image - brand prestige - behavior intention}}$ = .240*		CFI=.958,
			$\beta_{\text{philanthropic CSR - brand image - brand prestige - behavior intention}}$ = .328**		IFI=.959,
			$\beta_{\text{ethical CSR - brand image - brand prestige - behavior intention}}$ = .269		TLI=.951

to be significant as presented in table 2.

Validity results of hypothesis are as follows. Legal CSR (H_1: b=.037, $p > .05$) on brand image showed no significance but economic CSR (H_2: b = 0.272, $p < .01$), philanthropic CSR (H_3: b = 0.372, $p < .01$) and ethical CSR (H_4: b = 0.305, $p < .01$) on brand image were statistically significant. For that reason H_2, H_3, H_4 were supported, while H_1 was rejected. Brand image and brand prestige's influence on behavior intention were tested. Brand image (H_5: b = 0.892, $p < .01$ / H_6: b = 0.420, $p < .01$) were statistically significant on brand prestige and behavior intention. Thus, H_5 and H_6 were supported. Lastly H_7 was also supported as brand prestige (H_7: b = 0.519, $p < .01$) positively influenced behavior intention.

Within the conceptual model, using mediating framework is known to help sorting out complex data analyzing structure (Han & Kim, 2009). Therefore, to test the indirect influence of brand image and prestige on behavior intention, bootstrapping was performed. As a result, economic CSR ($\beta_{\text{economic CSR - brand image - brand prestige - behavior intention}}$ = .240, $p < .05$) and philanthropic CSR ($\beta_{\text{philanthropic CSR - brand image - brand prestige - behavior intention}}$ = .328, $p < .01$) were shown to be indirectly influential to behavior intention. This result implies that brand image and brand prestige also have mediation effect within the conceptual framework.

V. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to verify the influences of hotel firm's CSR activities on brand image and the influences of the brand image on brand prestige and behavior intention. Specifically, the study tried to verify the influences of hotel firms' legal, economic, philanthropic, and ethical CSR on brand image, influences of the brand image on brand prestige and behavior intention, and indirect influences of the brand image on brand prestige and behavior intention. For empirical study, customers who experienced local and/or foreign hotel services within a year were surveyed. Results of the survey and deducted implications are presented below.

First, amongst four hypotheses that hotel firms' legal, economic, philosophical, and ethical CSR will have positive influence on brand image, only hypothesis 2, 3, and 4 were supported and 1 was rejected as hotel firm's legal CSR has no significant influence on brand image. This result coincided with previous research result by Yun (2018) that hotel firms CSR activities positively affects brand image. Also, the result partially coincided with Martínez, Pérez, and del Bosque (2014) result that firms CSR activities coincide with hotel's brand image and brand loyalty. Amid which customers recognize as hotel firm's CSR activities, economical, philosophical, and ethical CSR activities are easy to recognize as hotel firms marketing activities, legal CSR is to be recognized as customers will not know how firms follow legal guidelines unless it is publicized for some reason. Therefore, legal CSR is hard to be positively influential to brand image. And therefore, hotel firms will have to participate in CSR activities that will improve environmental problems, employee benefits, and customer rights, etc. rather than just focusing on improving revenue. This implies that hotel firms with CSR will be competitive, continuously prosper, and be recognized as a firm with positive brand image, working hard to practice CSR activities, which will be intangible asset to the firm.

Second, according to the result of hypothesis 5 and 6, which showed that brand image upsurge brand prestige ($\beta = 0.892$, $p < 0.01$) and behavior intention ($\beta = 0.420$, $p < 0.01$), brand image being influential. This result implies that when customers recognize hotel firm's brand image is positive, brand prestige and behavior intention increases and vice versa. Today, gaining trust and respect from firm's stakeholders are more important than ever. Due to the era of SNS, just one mouse click enables user to share a lot of information worldwide through web and information of firms that are influential to firms' brand image and product purchasing decisions spread out every minute, meaning that just a minor mistake can negatively influence firm's brand image and brand prestige. A recent example of Namyang Dairy Products and Baesangmyun Brewery Co. incident and a leading airline's over using power tyranny incident all showed that negatively affected brand image can lead to boycott of services or products of these companies. Then the brand image cannot be easily recovered and firms' revenue decreases, limits investments, and be less competitive in hiring processes. Thus, hotel firms should put in great efforts to create good brand image through advertisements and sponsorships, which will not only create brand prestige but also behavior intention of customers.

Third, brand prestige ($\beta = 0.519$, $p < 0.01$) positively affects behavior intention as hypothesis 7 was supported. This result coincide with Vigneron and Johnson (2004), Wong and Zhou (2005) that as brand prestige increase customers' behavior intention also increase. When customers have trouble differentiating a product of certain brands emotionally or logically, brand prestige can act as a decision maker. For this reason, brand prestige of hotel firms is considered an important asset because a high brand prestige leads to trust of certain brand product and allow customers to recognize and consider intangible elements of the product. According to brand management and brand value, when customers' recognition of products' value increase, customers' purchase intention and preference are influenced. Therefore, brand prestige cannot be easily imitated in short period of time and that competing brands should continuously put in great efforts to be competitive.

This study intended to research how CSR of hotel firms affect the firms' brand image and how that brand image affects brand prestige and behavior intention. The result of the study proved that brand image and brand prestige indirectly affects behavior intention, which was not been proved in previous studies. This can be further studied inside or outside the country as measurement scale for qualitative research. Also, the study proved that brand image that customers have positively influence brand prestige and behavior intention that hotel firms should try to abide laws and ethics and gain support from firms' stakeholders to improve firms' brand image.

The study has generated meaningful implications but also have limitation plus task for the future. First, the study's sample was limited to natives residing in Korea that research not limiting to natives and going worldwide travelers will generate result that can be widely accepted. Second, the sample was limited to hotel users within a year but future studies can sample employees of hotels to study how CSR affects brand image, brand prestige, and behavior intention.

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The impact of community attachment and ethnocentrism on residents' perceptions of the social impact of a mega-event*

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Abstract

This study examined the impact of community attachment and ethnocentrism on residents' perceptions of the social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai. To this end, an onsite survey was conducted to residents in Shanghai. The results of this study showed that the social impact of mega-events could be separated into positive and negative dimensions. The positive social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai was better maintenance of community facilities, such as new roads, buildings, parks, and public transportation. The negative social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai was excessive pollution, damage to natural areas, excessive drinking or drug use, increased crime, increased noise levels, and increased litter. As a result of the regression analysis, community satisfaction was found to have a negative effect on negative social impact and a positive effect on positive social impact. The higher the community satisfaction level, the stronger the perceived social impact among the residents. However, community participation did not have a significant impact on either negative or positive impact. In addition, the residents who had cultural relativism were found to perceive a negative effect on positive social impact and a positive effect on negative social impact, while residents who had higher levels of cultural superiority were more likely to a perceive positive social impact.

Key words: Residents' perceptions; social impacts; mega-event; community attachment; ethnocentrism; World Expo 2010 in Shanghai

I. Introduction

Mega-events are global, large-scale tourist events that take place within a limited period and increase tourism receipts, income, and employment; enhance economic investment and infrastructure; develop cultural and environmental awareness; and create an improved image for the host community (Lee, Taylor, Lee, & Lee, 2005). Mega-events can generate economic, social, cultural, and environmental benefits to host communities and nations (Chaohui, Lin, & Qiaoyun, 2012; Jago et al., 2010). These benefits also include the enhancement of facilities, accommodations, event management skills, and international reputation (Dansero & Puttilli, 2010). Due to the tangible and intangible benefits of hosting mega-events, bidding for the opportunity to host such events (e.g., World Cup, Asian Games, Olympic Games, Expos) is highly competitive (Kim, 2011).

Most research focused on residents' perceptions of mega-events have been performed in Western countries (Ko & Stewart, 2002): Canada (Ritchie, 1993), the United States (Ap & Crompton, 1993), the United Kingdom (Robson & Robson, 1996), and Australia (Brown & Giles, 1994). While this research has examined the factors that may impact residents' perceptions of mega-events (Gelan, 2003; Lenskyj, 2002; Mihalik, 2004; Waitt, 2003); little research

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has been conducted to examine the perceptions of residents in developing countries (Yang, Zeng, & Gu, 2010).

One of the major strands of research in this field investigates the impact of mega-events. Within this strand, the majority of the studies have focused on issues related to marketing, management, and the assessment of economic impact (Kasimati, 2003). Although the social impact of mega-events is intangible and difficult to measure (Delamere, Wankel, & Hinch, 2001; Getz, 1997), it can be more significant than the economic impact of the event (Giulianotti & Klauser, 2011).

In addition to understanding social factors, researchers should also understand how community attachment and ethnocentrism impact residents' perceptions of social impact. Although mega-events have attenuated ethnocentric boundaries (Winstanley, 2010), ethnocentrism could influence residents' social impact as people's degrees of ethnocentrism indicate their acceptance of new products, new people, and foreign influence (Parker, Haytko, & Hermans, 2011). The degree of ethnocentrism can potentially impact their attitudes toward foreign product or their tolerance of change. Community attachment and ethnocentrism may be potentially significant in regard to understanding people's perceptual difference. It is important to establish strategy to lead and support the attitude of residents. Therefore, identifying the relationship between the residents' perceptions of social impact and the influence of those two factors (i.e., community attachment and ethnocentrism) is important.

Thus, the purpose of this study is to identify the effects of community attachment and ethnocentrism on residents' perceptions of the social impacts of mega-events by focusing on the World Expo 2010 Shanghai. The following research questions will be answered through this study: (1) What is the relationship between community attachment and the perceived social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai? and (2) What is the relationship between ethnocentrism and the perceived social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai?

II. Literature review

1. Social impact of mega-events

Mathieson and Wall (1984) defined social impact as "the changes of quality of life of residents of tourist destinations" (p. 137). Mega-events are important generators of social activity for host communities. The positive social impact of mega-events include increases in civic pride, an enhanced image of the hosting community, improved quality of life for the hosting city or nations' residents, and increased unity within the hosting community (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002; Getz, 1997; Mihalik & Simonetta, 1999). It also strengthens cultural values, heritage, and traditions, as well as creates a deeper understanding of other groups (Hall, 1989). Significant social impacts of mega-events are improvements to the host's infrastructure, including facilities, parks, roads, and public transportation that can be used by residents after mega-events (Mihalik & Cummings, 1995; Mihalik & Simonetta, 1999; Ritchie & Lyons, 1990). In addition, mega-events provide opportunities for cultural growth for local residents (Francesca & Giovanna, 2017).

Yet mega-events also have negative aspects. The negative social impact of mega-events are a lack of safety, loss of authenticity, disorder, and socio-cultural conflict (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002; Kim & Petrick, 2005). Mega-events may lead to price inflation and increased municipal taxes that are used to build event-related infrastructure. Furthermore, mega-events yield some social problems, such as congestion (Mihalik & Cummings, 1995), crime (Mihalik & Cummings, 1995), and cultural commercialization (Cohen, 1988).

2. Community attachment

Community attachment can be defined "as the extent and pattern of social participation and integration into the community" (McCool & Martin, 1994, p. 30). Attachment implies positive perceptions of belonging, which can impact residents' perceptions of pride and happiness (Lee, Kang, & Reisinger, 2010; Rothenbuhler, Mullen, DeLaurell, & Ryu, 1996). In tourism literature, research has studied the impact of community attachment on residents' perceptions of tourism (Clark & Stein, 2003; Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997; McCool & Martin, 1994; Nepal, 2008; Um & Crompton, 1987; Yoon, Gursoy, & Chen, 2001) and found that community attachment is a significant factor for support for tourism and on residents' perceptions of the impact of tourism. However, past research has shown mixed results related to this impact of community attachment. For instance, Um and Crompton (1987) suggested a negative relationship between community attachment and impact, while Jurowski, Uysal, and Williams (1997) argued that residents' attachment positive influences their perceptions of the economic and social impacts of tourism. Recently, Cope et al. (2015) found that the Olympics had a positive effect on residents' community satisfaction, creating community attachment, and social ties. Yet, limited research has examined how community attachment is related to residents' perceptions of the social impact of mega-events. In the face of such conflicting results, this study posits the following hypotheses:

H_{1a}: Residents' perceptions of community participation (CP) will have a negative impact on their perceived negative social impact (NI) of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai.

H_{1b}: Residents' perceptions of CP will have a positive impact on their perceived positive social impact (PI) of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai.

H_{2a}: Residents' perceptions of community satisfaction (CSAT) will have a negative impact on their perceived NI of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai.

H_{2b}: Residents' perceptions of CSAT will have a positive impact on their perceived PI of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai.

3. Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism is another important factor by which researchers can understand peoples' perceptions of social impact. Ethnocentrism is a sociological concept first introduced by Sumner (1906) who defined it as "the view of things in which one's own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it" (p. 13). People's positions of ethnocentrism can affect their attitudes toward foreign products or for tolerance to change. Although mega-events between nations have attenuated ethnocentric boundaries, ethnocentrism could impact their social impact because people's degree of ethnocentrism indicates acceptance of new product, acceptance of new people, and acceptance of foreign influence.

Nicholson, Lee, Hemmasi, and Widdison (1993) found that people in collectivistic countries, such as China, tend to be more ethnocentric than individualistic cultures, such as the United States. Generally, hosting mega-events increases pride in the host community (Rivenburgh, 2004); however, as Shanghai is a collectivistic culture, it is unclear as to whether this aspect of the culture will cause the residents to have a reduction, increase, or no change in their pride when compared to non-collectivistic countries (Heslop, Nadeau, & O'Reilly, 2010). It is assumed that the collectivistic nature of Shanghai will cause the residents to have a positive increase in their pride related to hosting the mega-event. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H_{3a}: Residents' perceptions of cultural superiority (CS) will have a negative impact on their perceived NI of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai.

H_{3b}: Residents' perceptions of CS will have a positive impact on their perceived PI of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai.

H_{4a}: Residents' perceptions of cultural relativism (CR) will have a negative impact on their perceived NI of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai.

H_{4b}: Residents' perceptions of CR will have a positive impact on their perceived PI of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai.

Based on the aforementioned hypotheses, this study developed a research model, which is shown in Figure 1.

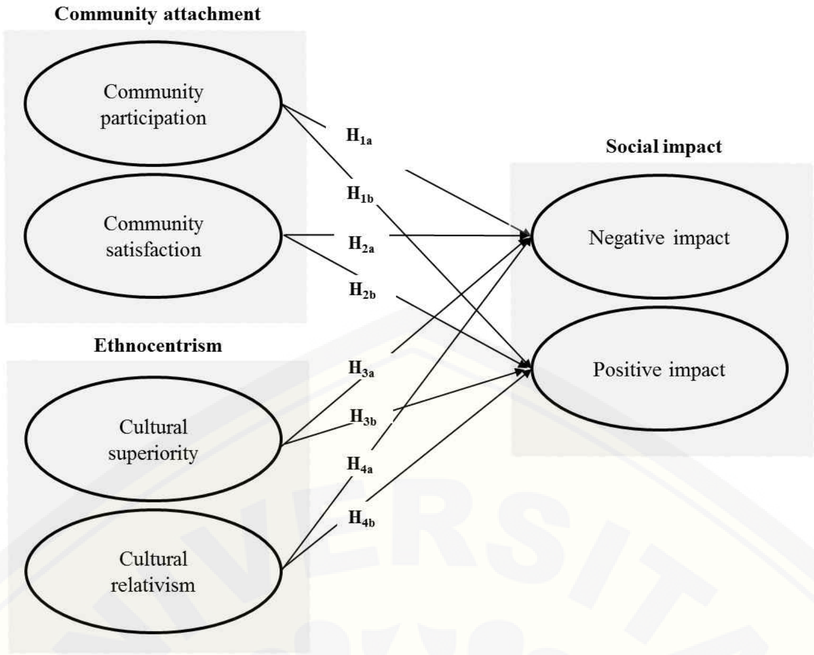


Figure 1. A research model

Ⅲ. Methods

1. Study site

The World Expo is a non-commercial, mega-event, aimed at promoting cooperation and cultural exchange between countries, encouraging world development, and offering opportunities to be involved in world issues. It has been an important source of new thoughts, ideas, and innovations since 1851. For example, Bell's telephone, the Wright Brothers' plane, and the Eiffel Tower were inventions presented at World Expos (Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2007). The World Expo 2010 Shanghai was the largest expo ever held, with an attendance of around 73 million domestic and international visitors from 193 countries and 48 organizations. It was held from April 30, 2010 to October 31, 2010 (Expo Museum, 2010). The visitors increased by 12% from the previous expo, causing Shanghai's tourism revenue to increase by 13% from the previous year with the estimated economic impact being 12 billion USD (Expo 2010 Shanghai China, 2010). The World Expo 2010 Shanghai left its 17 million residents in Shanghai with a considerable legacy, reflecting the slogan of "Better City, Better Life" (Expo 2010 Shanghai China, 2010). The objective of urbanization is to improve individuals' quality of life, social opportunities, and facilities. To this end, the Chinese government invested $6 billion USD to develop new roads, bridges, buildings, and parks and improved housing, created more open spaces, created an extended green belt, and revived the riversides.

2. Measures

In order to measure the residents' community attachment, five items were adapted from Lee, Kang, and Reisinger's (2010) study. The measure of ethnocentrism was adapted from Neuliep and McCroskey's (1997) research. The generalized ethnocentrism scale included 22 items with a reliability of .92 (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). Forty-two impact statements were used to measure the social impact variables and were adapted from Fredline, Jago, and Deery's (2003) study. A 5-point Likert scale was used to measure these items, ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5) and strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

3. Data collection and analysis

The questionnaires were originally development in English and translated into Chinese. An on-site, face-to-face survey was carried out for residents of Gubei, the residential area located in the Changning District, and Nanjing Road in Shanghai in China. The data were collected over a three month period between April 2011 and June 2011. A convenience sampling method was employed to select the respondents. Self-administered questionnaires were conducted to those individuals who consented to take part in the research. Only respondents 18 and older and one person per a household were asked to participate in the study. A total of 240 questionnaires were received; however, only 200 responses were used for the data analysis since 40 questionnaires were only partially completed. A factor analysis was employed to extract the underlying constructs of the social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai. A frequency analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and regression analysis were performed using SPSS 21.0.

IV. Results

1. Results of demographic profile

Table 1 presents the demographics of the sample. The sample consisted of 109 (54.5%) males and 91 (45.5%) females. The age of respondents ranged from 18 to 67 and about 60% of the respondents were between 20 and 29. A total of 35% of the respondents reported their job status as college student, while 13% held technical or professional positions. The average for the participants' years of residency in the community was 5.5 years, but the value ranged from five years to more than 20 years.

2. Results of factor analysis

Table 2 shows that the factor analysis of community attachment, ethnocentrism, and social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai and the perceived social impact by local residents resulted in two dimensions of each factor. Each factor had eigenvalues above 1.0 and factor loadings above .4. The reliability coefficients were above .6, ranging from .615 to .797. The factors were labeled according to similar categories of the variables.

First, the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with five items

Table 1. Demographic and general characteristics of respondents

Characteristics	*N (200)*	*%*	*Characteristics*	*N (200)*	*%*
Gender			Occupation		
Male	109	54.5	Manager/Executive	20	10.0
Female	91	45.5	Professional/Technical	26	13.0
Age			Clerical/Sales	25	12.5
18-19 years old	6	3.0	Military	3	1.5
20-29 years old	121	60.5	Farming/Fishing	2	1.0
30-39 years old	43	21.5	Homemaker	4	2.0
40-49 years old	22	11.0	Retired	2	1.0
50-54 years old	6	3.0	College student	70	35.0
55 years old and over	2	1.0	Owner/Self-employed	20	10.0
Educational level			Other	6	3.0
Less than high school	6	3.0	Years of residency in community		
High school graduate	21	10.5	Less than 2 years	63	31.5
Associate degree	36	18.0	2-5 years	49	24.5
Bachelor degree	112	56.0	6-10 years	32	16.0
Master degree	20	10.0	11-20 years	15	7.5
Doctorate	3	1.5	More than 20 years	26	13.0
Other	2	1.0	All my life	15	7.5

related to community attachment delineated two factors. The factor analysis showed that the Kaiser-Meyer- Olkin (KMO) was .713 and Bartlett's test of Sphericity was 287.819 (p<.001), indicating that the covariance matrix was suitable for conducting a factor analysis. The total explained was 72.84%. The first factor was labeled "community participation" and included three items focused on community involvement; community development activities, such as engagement in local issues and community activities; and financial support for the development of Shanghai. This factor explained 37.88% of the total variance with a reliability coefficient of .727. The second factor labeled "community satisfaction" consisted of two items that focused on degree of satisfaction with place (Cross, 2003). This factor explained 34.96% of the total variance with a reliability coefficient of .773.

Second, the EFA with six items related to ethnocentrism delineated two factors. The factor analysis showed that the KMO was .708 and Bartlett's test of Sphericity was 297.318 (p<.001), indicating that the covariance matrix was suitable

Table 2. Results of factor analysis of the social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai

Factors and items	*Factor loading*	*Com*	*Means*	*Overall mean*	*Eigen value*	*VE (%)*	*RC*
Community participation							
I am actively involved in community issues and activities	.854	.730	3.32	3.23	1.894	37.880	.727
I would do my best to enhance the development of Shanghai	.788	.721	3.62				
I would be willing to provide financial support for the development of Shanghai	.683	.586	2.75				
Community satisfaction							
I would like to live in Shanghai more than in other communities	.895	.813	3.49	3.36	1.748	34.959	.773
Shanghai is an ideal place to live.	.853	.792	3.23				
KMO: .713, Bartlett's test of Sphericity: 287.819 (p<.001), Total variance explained: 72.840%							
Cultural superiority							
My culture should be the role model for other cultures	.882	.779	2.83	2.48	2.128	35.474	.793
Other cultures should try to be more like my culture	.843	.729	2.40				
Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture	.771	.661	2.21				
Cultural relativism							
I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures	.812	.675	1.51	1.80	1.801	30.009	.615
I dislike interacting with people from different cultures	.760	.610	1.68				
Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture	.690	.476	2.21				
KMO: .708, Bartlett's test of Sphericity: 297.318 (p<.001), Total variance explained: 65.484%							
Negative impact							
Shanghai Expo has a negative impact on the environment through excessive pollution and/or damage to natural areas	.772	.607	2.67	2.474	2.928	32.533	.782
Shanghai Expo contributes social problems such as excessive drinking and/or drug use	.763	.601	2.29				
Shanghai Expo is associated with some people behaving inappropriately, perhaps in a rowdy and delinquent way, or engaging in excessive drinking or drug use or other criminal behavior	.758	.595	02.25				
Shanghai Expo has a negative impact on the environment through excessive litter	.747	.558	2.94				
Shanghai Expo contributes social problems such as crime, prostitution, and so forth in the community	.738	.577	2.22				
Positive impact							
Shanghai Expo promotes the development and better maintenance of public transport	.827	.706	4.04	4.07	2.533	28.148	.797
Shanghai Expo promotes the development and better maintenance of public facilities such as roads, parks, sporting facilities for local residents	.823	.687	4.2				
Shanghai Expo provides local residents to interact with tourists	.795	.632	3.95				
Because of Shanghai Expo, public facilities and other local services are well maintained	.677	.498	4.09				
KMO: .783, Bartlett's test of Sphericity: 632.923(p<.001), Total variance explained: 60.681%							

Note: Com: communality, VE: variance explained, RC: reliability coefficient for conducting a factor analysis. The total explained was 65.45%. The first factor was labeled “cultural superiority” and included three items reflecting a belief in the superiority of their own culture (Lewis, 2003). This factor explained 35.45% of the total variance with a reliability coefficient of .793. The second factor was labeled “cultural relativism” and included three items reflecting respect for other cultures and close interactions with people from different cultures. This factor explained 30.01% of the total variance with a reliability coefficient of .615.

Third, the EFA with nine items related to ethnocentrism delineated two factors. The factor analysis showed that the KMO was .783 and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity was 632.923 ($p<.001$), indicating that the covariance matrix was suitable for conducting a factor analysis. The total explained was 60.68%. The first factor was labeled “negative impact” and included five items identifying issues related to excessive pollution and/or damage to natural areas, excessive drinking or drug use, increased crime, and increased litter. This factor explained 32.53% of the total variance with a reliability coefficient of .782. The second factor was labeled “positive impact” and included four items focused on facility maintenance, such as new roads, new buildings, new parks, and new public transportation. This factor explained 28.15% of the total variance with a reliability coefficient of .797.

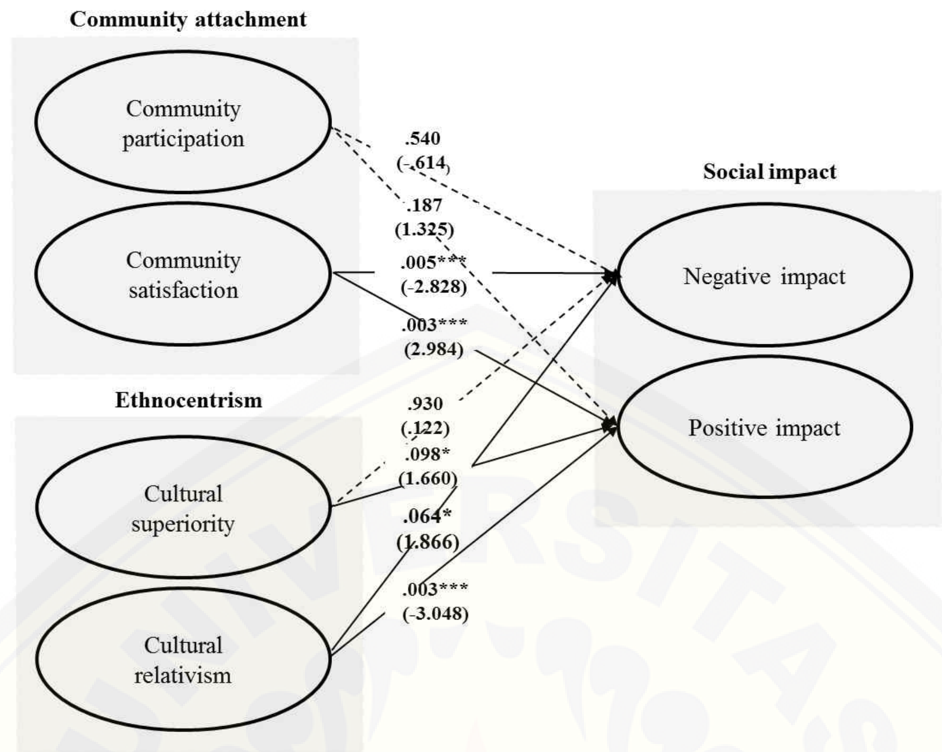
3. Results of regression analysis

This study utilized a regression model to examine the relationships among community attachment, ethnocentrism, and the residents’ perceived negative social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai. As shown in Table 3, the regression model was statistically significant ($F=2.968$, $p=.021$) with a relatively low adjusted R^2 (.038). The results of the regression analysis indicated that CSAT ($\beta_{CSAT \rightarrow NI}=-.199$, $t=-2.828$, $p<.01$) had a negative effect on the residents’ perceived NI of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai (see also Figure 2). In addition, CR ($\beta_{CR \rightarrow NI}=.130$, $t=1.866$, $p<.1$) had a positive effect on the residents’ perceived NI. In this study, we used Kim’s (2015) significance cutoff (i.e., .1). Thus, H_{2a} and H_{4a} were supported. However, CP ($\beta_{CP \rightarrow NI}=-.043$, $t=-.614$, $p=.540$) and CS ($\beta_{CS \rightarrow NI}=.009$, $t=.122$, $p=.903$) did not have any significant effects on perceived NI. Thus, H_{1a} and H_{3a} were rejected.

This study also performed a regression analysis in order to examine the relationships among community attachment, ethnocentrism, and the residents’ perceived positive social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai. The regression model was statistically significant ($F=6.353$, $p<.01$) with a relatively low adjusted R^2 (.097). The results of the regression analysis indicated that CSAT ($\beta_{CSAT \rightarrow PI}=.203$, $t=2.984$, $p<.01$) and CS ($\beta_{CS \rightarrow PI}=.114$, $t=1.660$, $p<.1$) had positive effects on the residents’ perceived PI at the .1 significance level (Kim, 2015). In addition, CR) ($\beta_{CR \rightarrow PI}=-.206$, $t=-3.048$, $p<.01$) had a negative effect on the residents’ perceived PI.

Table 3. Results of regression analysis

Hypothesis	*Independent variable*	*Dependent variable*	*Unstandardized coefficient* β	*Std.*	*Standardized coefficients Beta*	*t-value*	*Sig.*
H_{1a}	Community participation	Negative impact	-.043	.070	-.043	-.614	.540
H_{2a}	Community satisfaction		-.199	.070	-.199	-2.828	.005
H_{3a}	Cultural superiority		.009	.071	.009	.122	.903
H_{4a}	Cultural relativism		.130	.070	.130	1.866	.064
Adj R^2=.038, F-value=2.968, p=.021							
H_{1b}	Community participation	Positive impact	.090	.068	.090	1.325	.187
H_{2b}	Community satisfaction		.203	.068	.203	2.984	.003
H_{3b}	Cultural superiority		.114	.069	.114	1.660	.098
H_{4b}	Cultural relativism		-.206	.067	-.206	-3.048	.003
Adj R^2=.097, F-value=6.353, p<.001							



Note: *p<.1, *** p<.01

Figure 2. Results of regression models

Thus, H_{2b}, H_{3b}, and H_{4b} were supported. However, CP ($\beta_{CP \rightarrow PI}$=.090, t=1.325, p=.187) did not have any significant effects on perceived PI. Thus, H_{1b} was rejected.

V. Conclusion and implications

Utilizing survey data provided by Shanghai residents, this study verified the relationships among community attachment, ethnocentrism, and the perceived social impact dimensions of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai. The results showed that Shanghai residents had positive perceptions of the social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai, with 66.5% support among the respondents for the mega-event. The results of the factor analysis found that there were two dimensions of social impact among the Shanghai residents: negative impact and positive impact. The negative social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai appeared to be more closely related to the disruptions that incurred as a result of having the mega-event in their community. These disruptions were not financial in nature and were considered to be social costs of mega-events. Apparently, the majority of social impact items dealt with maintenance, community facility, and meeting people.

The social impact factor results were consistent with previous findings showed that the most important perceived negative social impacts of mega-events were associated with social problems, such as congestion and increased crime (Delamere et al., 2001; Small, 2007). It seems that the negative impacts of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai at the personal and community levels included both social and environmental issues. Problems such as excessive pollution, damage to natural areas, excessive drinking or drug use, increased crime, and increased noise and litter were worse with the influx of tourists to the area. These types of social issues affected the residents and community as a whole. In addition, one of the most important perceived positive social impacts was the development of infrastructure and recreational facilities (Gursoy et at., 2006; Kendall & Var, 1984) that can be used by residents after mega-events, which was consistent with previous findings (Fredline et al., 2003; Mihalik & Simonetta, 1999). In this regard, the perceived impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai came from facility opportunities, such as maintaining road conditions, parks, and public transportation.

Community attachment is a significant factor of support and influences residents' perceptions of impact. The findings of this study showed that community satisfaction significantly influenced residents' perceptions of the positive and negative social impacts of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai. Specifically, the higher the community satisfaction level, the more strongly the residents perceived the social impacts of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai favorably. Past research demonstrated mixed results regarding the impact of community attachment; however, Deccio and Baloglu (2002) showed the important relationship between community attachment and perceived impact.

Interestingly, the more satisfied the residents were with their community, they less likely they were to perceive a negative social impact. The results showed that the residents with high community attachment were tolerant of the negative social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai. This finding was consistent with past literature (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002; Gursoy et al., 2002; Um & Crompton, 1987) and concluded that community attachment was likely to have an important impact on negative social impact.

However, community participation did not have a significant impact on the negative or positive impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai. According to Lamberti et al. (2011), community participation has long been regarded as being at an early stage in China. Therefore, hosting the World Expo 2010 Shanghai was the community's first steps toward the participation. The results of this study showed that residents who had higher levels of cultural relativism were found to have a negative effect on the positive social impact and a positive effect on the negative social impact. These results found that the residents who had higher levels of cultural relativism were less likely to perceive the increase in crime as being as severe as perceived by the residents who had lower levels of cultural relativism.

In addition, the residents who had cultural relativism were found to perceive a negative effect on the positive social impact and a positive effect on the negative social impact, while residents who had higher levels of cultural superiority were more likely to perceive a positive effect on the positive social impact. Although research on the effects of ethnocentrism on the impact of mega-events in China has been limited (Wang & Zhuang, 2010; Yang et al., 2010; Zhou & Ap, 2009), a few empirical studies exist that have examined the role of consumer ethnocentrism and the results of ethnocentrism seem to be consistent with the findings of this study what has been found in the previous studies (Ding 2017; Wong, Polonsky, & Garma, 2008). Recently, Ding (2017) found that consumer ethnocentrism was low in China. Furthermore, young Chinese people have low levels of consumer ethnocentrism (Wong et al., 2018). As this study contained a large population of young people, this factor may explain why cultural superiority did not have a significant effect on perceived negative impact. Thus, caution should be undertaken in generalizing the results to other populations.

The present research findings suggest that, overall, the residents had positive feelings about their community, tolerated the inconveniences caused by the mega-event, identified with their community, and positively related to perceptions of overcrowding. This finding showed that community attachment may play a significant factor in tourism planning for mega-events (Lee et al., 2010) because the more residents perceive the social benefits of a mega-event, the more likely they are to support it and the less likely they are to be bothered by its inconveniences.

Theoretically, the results of this study are valuable to the mega-event literature, researchers, and academics as related to examining the factors affecting residents' perceptions of the positive and negative social impacts of mega-events and investigating the relationships among these factors. The major contribution of the present study was that it helped indicate how the factors of community attachment and ethnocentrism were involved with the social impact of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai. Moreover, this study tested a new model demonstrating how each factor of community attachment and ethnocentrism affected the residents' perceptions of the positive and negative social impacts of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai and identified the interactions among the factors. The research model developed in this study contributed to a theoretical foundation by investigating the association among the social impact of mega-events, community attachment, and ethnocentrism in the context of the World Expo 2010 Shanghai.

Practically, the results of this study have implications on the ways by which to utilize mega-event resources and operations. Mega-event practitioners should consider developing strategies, strengthening relationships, and focusing on sustaining residents' perceived social impact in order to gain the residents' support for future events (Song, Kim, & Choe, 2019). Local residents' support and involvement play an important role in hosting mega-events (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). The findings of the study suggest that the perceptions of local residents and mega-event practitioners may offer additional insights into the social impacts of mega-events.

Little research has been conducted to examine the perceptions of residents in developing countries, thus this study can fill the void about residents' perceptions of the social impact of mega-events in a developing country (Yang et al., 2010). However, as the results were limited to Shanghai residents, future studies should compare communities with different social structures or at different stages of tourism development to determine changes in the impact among the factors. In addition, future research should consider collecting data before, during, and after a mega-event to compare any changes that may take place over time. Future research may need to focus on the dynamic components and roles of each factor in the model.

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The effect of services and facilities on visitors' experiences*
: Focused on first-time and repeat visitors to 17 national parks in Korea

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Abstract

Koran national park visitation has been on the rise during the last decade. Understanding the differences in individual needs and characteristics of park visitors has been investigated extensively in the literature, but a scant amount of research has focused on Korean national park visitors. This article contributes to the literature on parks and protected areas by examining peoples' use of leisure services (visitation of national parks) in Korean national parks based on frequency of visitation. The results showed that 12.1% of the visitors were first-time visitors, while 87.9% were repeat visitors. In addition, the results identified 11 variables that discriminated between the first-time and repeat visitor groups, eight visitor characteristics (i.e., age, gender, income, education, group type, length of visit, proximity, number of people in group) and three attributes (i.e., environmental pollution, public etiquette, cultural commercialization). As Korean national parks continue to see increase usage, concerns over use, maintenance, user education, and conservation have become increasingly critical for managers. Future research is suggested to learn more about the effects of services and facilities on visitors' experiences, visitors' characteristics, park attributes, and preferences of Korean national park visitors to meet current and future users' needs.

Key words: Korean national parks, park visitation, satisfaction, park management

I. Introduction

Continued urbanization across the world has prompted individuals to seek relaxation, stress relief, and appreciation for the natural environment by visiting parks and protected areas (Gobster, 2002; Shin et al, 2005). In conjunction with the decrease in work hours in Korea, internationally, demand for nature-based tourism has increased (Jones, 2012). As such, demand in Korea has steadily increased, seeing its highest number of visitors in 2017 (Korean National Park Service [KNPS], 2019). Furthermore, in Korea, this increase in visitation is assumed to be attributed to the reduced work hours nationally from 68 hours a week to 52 hours a week in 2003 (Choe, Schuett, & Sim, 2017). This decreasing work time and increasing leisure time could be an important contributor to these visitation increases (Siderelis, Moore, & Lee, 2011). In addition, in 2007, the Korean government eliminated Korean national park entrance fees (Schuett et al., 2016).

Due to annual visitation increases, the balance between visitor use and resource sustainability is a challenge for park managers. Information about visitor characteristics and preferences in Korean national parks is needed, yet limited (Shin et al., 2005). As park managers and the tourism industry learn more about peoples' growing interest in national parks, a few issues are becoming progressively more important. Theoretically, this study can help researchers determine whether national parks are attracting new visitors or whether repeat visitors are returning more often. In addition, the results should help determine the visitors' preferences and what interests are causing their return trips. Understanding why visitors choose these

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Figure 1. Total number of annual visits to Korean National Parks 2004-2017 (KNPS, 2019).

national parks over other destinations is critical for park managers to meet current user needs (Manning, 2011; Morais, Dorsch, & Backman, 2004; Schuett et al., 2016). However, visitor satisfaction and education are important because they are tied to programs and services that promote conservation and sustainability. These type of programs and services are a key to maintaining park resources, providing a high-quality visitor experiences, and meeting the needs of the tourism industry.

II. Literature review

1. National Parks in Korea

A total of 22 national parks have been designated in Korea since 1967; 17 are mountainous national parks, four are coastal national parks, and one is a historical national park (KNPS, 2019). The Korean National Park system conserves the parks' natural and cultural resources, protects park environments by enforcing rules and managing regulations, ensures sustainable use by developing visitor programs, and improves visitor services (KNPS, 2019). In addition, the system collaborates with visitors by engaging the public in park management decision-making (KNPS, 2019).

The national parks were established to conserve natural, historical, and cultural resources and provide quality experiences for current visitors and future generations (Choe et al., 2017; Diamant, 2018; Manning, 2011). In addition, the provision of quality services is linked to visitors' satisfaction, which can lead to repeat visitation and agency support (Baker & Crompton, 2000; LaPage & Bevins 1981; Lee et al., 2016; Sim, Choe & Kim, 2018).

In terms of outdoor recreation participation, 82% of Koreans live in urban settings and seek nature-based tourism destinations to escape daily urban daily life (Choe et al., 2017; World Bank, 2012). As such, Korean national parks have become a significant source of natural, socio-cultural, and economic value (Shin et al., 2010).

Although past studies have shed some light on visitors to Korean national parks, they focused mostly on economics, predicting future demand, and destination image. A study by Shin, Jaakson and Kim (2001) found the effects of resource characteristics on visitor benefits to Seoraksan National Park in Korea. In In this study, the author reaffirmed "that visitor benefits are related to the physical, social, and management characteristics of a park" (Shin et al, 2001, p. 419). These past articles on Korean national park visitors only scratch the surface in regard to identifying basic visitor needs, resource preferences, and attitudes toward specific national parks. Given the volume of visitors to Korean national parks, park managers need more data to plan effectively in regard to protecting the resource for future generations and ensuring that visitors have a satisfying experience.

2. First-time and repeat visitation

As mentioned earlier, a few reasons exist that may have impacted increased visitation to Korean national parks in the last few years (e.g., changes in the work week, elimination of fees, and urbanization). Given this situation, it is critical to identify who these visitors are and ascertain whether parks are attracting new visitors, gaining increased loyalty from existing visitors, or both.

Shoemaker and Shaw (2008) stated that various means exist by which to sub-divide a market; a commonly used method of market segmentation is a comparison between first-time and repeat visitation. This method has yielded a plethora of viable results. Early in this body of literature, Gitelson and Crompton (1984) stated that first-time visitors are younger than repeat visitors with emotion playing an important role in the decision to revisit. The authors concluded that people diminish risks by visiting the same destination, which guarantees a quality visit, and are more likely to share this information with friends, family, and others. Oppermann's (1997) research of New Zealand tourists found that destination loyalty is an important factor in regard to predicting revisits or repurchases. In her study of repeat visitors to Hong Kong, Wang (2004) found repeat visitors to be better off economically than first-time visitors. So and Morrison (2004) examined repeat tourists to Taiwan using a multi-stage approach and found repeat visitors to be older, have higher incomes, and spend more money than first-timer visitors. Repeat visitors are also quite knowledgeable and informed about the range of activities available, which is tied to their high level of satisfaction (Lau & McKercher, 2004). As the literature shows, tourists who have had positive experiences will probably repeat that behavior (Petrick & Backman, 2002), while dissatisfaction is problematic for visitors in regard to revisiting a destination (Campo-Martínez, Garau-Vadell, & Martínez- Ruiz, 2010).

Although the characteristics of first-time and repeat visitors are often quite different, this variable has not been examined in much detail in regard to visiting national parks. Market segmentation can be an effective strategy by which to better understand visitors' needs and future national park use (Schuett, Le, & Hollenhorst, 2010). A few recent studies have examined intention to revisit/frequency of visitation to Norwegian and Finnish national parks (Haukeland, Grue, & Veisten, 2010; Sievänen, Neuvonen, & Pouta, 2011); however, using this approach in Asian national parks has been somewhat limited (Choe et al., 2017; Schuett et al., 2017; Shin et al., 2005). In one of the few articles examining national park visitors based on frequency of visitation, Jones' (2012) study focused on visitors to the Kamikochi National Park in Japan. Declining visitation to Japan's national parks prompted this study, which found that 59% of the visitors were repeat visitors. These visitors were also older women from urban areas, well-educated, had higher than average incomes, and traveled mostly with package tours. Recently, Choe (2017) investigated first-time and repeat visitors to Bukhansan National Park in Korea, which is recognized as the most visited national park in Korea with more than six million annual visitors. The results of the study found significant differences between first-time and repeat visitors' socio-demographic, tripographic, and motivation variables.

The category of repeat visitation is a large market segment and can be quite vague as it can range from visiting twice to visiting 10 times per year. Due to this variation, the framework for this study has been guided by previous research on market segmentation and national park visitation, which uses two or more visits per year to classify a repeat visitor. Understanding visitor behavior is significant as it affects individual satisfaction and future park management issues. Thus, this study examines first-time and repeat visitors to Korean national parks based on the following research questions: 1) What are the differences between socio-demographics, trip characteristics, and satisfaction with park attributes/services as they are related to frequency of visitation to Korean national parks? 2) Which variables are significant when comparing first-time and repeat visitors? 3) Which variables discriminate most effectively in regard to profiling first-time and repeat visitors to Korean national parks?

III. Methods

1. Instrument

The questionnaire consisted of information on visitors' satisfaction related to park services and their motivation to use the national parks. When people visit national parks, they have multi-dimensional needs, intentions, expectations, and experiences. People's own norms, attitudes, and values may influence their satisfaction for visiting national parks. Visitor satisfaction is used as an effective measurement approach by which to gauge park management performance in regard to delivering service quality and programs (Wearing, Archer, & Beeton, 2007). The questionnaire consisted of 24 items regarding park attributes/services and facilities: natural landscape, travel expenses, length of trip, trails, educational activities, transportation, accommodations, local cuisine, historic sites/places, tourism services, commodity prices, local food/crafts, parking fees, crowding, traffic, environmental pollution, directional signs, cultural commercialization, restroom cleanliness, illegal cooking, facilities, public etiquette, facilities for the handicapped, and water pollution. Tripographics or travel-related behavioral characteristics were measured by group composition, group size, length of visit, mode of transportation, frequency of visitation, motivation, and experience in order to explore travel-related behaviors and/or characteristics (Pearce, 2005).

2. Data collection and analysis

The data were collected via on-site surveys from 6,575 respondents at 17 national parks in Korea in 2010 by the KNPS. The study variables included motivations, park preferences, travel behaviors, and demographics. The KNPS surveys park visitors regularly, for example, from 2003-2007 and again in 2010. Two stages of data analyses were utilized in this study. Initially, independent sample t-tests and cross-tabulation with chi-square tests were conducted to identify any statistically significant differences between the groups of visitors in terms of socio-demographics and tripographics. In order to measure satisfaction for park services, independent sample t-tests were used to compare the satisfaction responses related to park attributes/services for first-time and repeat visitors. Next, a discriminant analysis was used to determine which of the socio-demographics, tripographics, and park attributes/services significantly discriminated between first-time and repeat visitors.

IV. Results

1. Visitor profile

The data for this research were collected via an on-site survey at 17 national parks in 2010 (n=6,575). The visitors were 57.4% male and 42.6% female. The age of the respondents ranged from the teens to the 70s, but the majority of the visitors were between 30- and 49-years-old. The respondents were well-educated with a total of 56.7% of the respondents completing a bachelor's degree.

Table 1. Results of respondents' sociodemographics

Category	*Frequency*	*%*
Gender (n=6,422)		
Male	3684	57.4
Female	2738	42.6
Age group (n=6,386)		
18~29 years old	1323	20.7
30~39 years old	1621	25.4
40~49 years old	1848	28.9
50~59years old	1195	18.7
60~69 years old	344	5.4
70 years old and over	55	.9
Educational level (n=6,488)		
High school	1716	26.4
Undergraduate student	564	8.7
Undergraduate	3676	56.7
Post-graduate	532	8.2
Income (n=6,451)		
Less than US $1,000 dollars	285	4.4
US $ 1,000-1,999	964	14.9
US $ 2,000-2,999	1906	29.5
US $ 3,000-4,000	1488	23.1
US $ 4,000-4,999	863	13.4
Over US $ 5,000	945	614.6

In examining trip behavior, the majority of the visitors came in groups of three or more (65.5%). For the respondents' motivations to visit the parks, enhancing health was the most frequently reported item (32.5%), followed by building friendships (23.4%), and appreciating scenery (19.3%). Most of the visitors came to the parks by private car (63.5%), followed by charter buses (15.1%). They visited the national parks in various group types, such as family (33.9%), friends

Table 2. Results of respondents' tripographic profile.

Category	*Frequency*	*%*
Number of visitors in group (n=6,541)		
1	709	10.8
2	1548	23.7
3-5	2273	34.8
6+	2011	30.7
Motivation (n=6,484)		
Enhance health	2107	32.5
Build friendships	1510	23.3
Appreciate scenery	1250	19.3
Appreciate cultural assets	288	4.4
Relaxation	854	13.2
Proximity to other destinations	126	1.9
Lower travel costs	60	.9
Educational trip	100	1.5
Participate in festival/events	47	.7
Park's proximity	81	1.2
Other	61	.9
Transportation (n=6,560)		
Private vehicle	4163	63.5
Chartered bus	993	15.1
Intercity bus	424	6.5
Train (subway)	370	5.6
Intra-city bus	440	6.7
Taxi	33	.5
Other	137	2.1
Proximity (n=6,569)		
Less than 1 hour	1558	23.7
1-2 hours	1708	26.0
2-3 hours	1582	24.1
3-4 hours	1032	15.7
4-5 hours	475	7.2
5 or more hours	214	3.3
Length of visit (n=6,398)		
Less than 24 hours	4503	70.4
Two days	1385	21.6
Three days	436	6.8
Four days	53	.8
Five or more days	21	.3
Group type (n=6,563)		
Alone	726	11.1
Family	2227	33.9
Friends	2030	30.9
Couple	579	8.8
Sports club	733	11.2
Local residents	152	2.3
Other	116	1.8

(30.9%), sports clubs (11.2%), or alone (11.1%). Approximately 3/4 of the sample (73.8%) lived within three hours of the park and 70.4% were day visitors, with 31.4% coming from Seoul, Korea's largest city, and its surrounding metropolitan area (i.e., Incheon and Gyeonggi Province).

In exploring visitor satisfaction related to the park attributes/services variables, the visitors were relatively satisfied, with the overall mean rating at 4.00 out of 5.00 (Table 4). For specific variables, the highest rating was for natural landscape (4.33), followed by trails (3.97), travel expenses (3.89), length of trip (3.74), and educational activities (3.70). In terms of the lowest levels of satisfaction, the bottom five items were water pollution (2.27), illegal cooking (2.29), restroom cleanliness (2.46), cultural commercialization (i.e., development in the park) (2.46), and environmental pollution (2.58).

2. First-time and repeat visitors

Of the 6,575 total valid responses, 797 (12.1%) were categorized as first-time visitors and 5,778 (87.9%) were categorized as repeat visitors. The results of this study found statistically significant differences between first-time and repeat visitors ($p < .05$) related to gender, age, education level, and income. Repeat visitors (59%) were more likely to be male than first-time visitors (48%). The largest age group for first-time visitors (33.5%) was 18-29, while for repeat visitors (29.7%) it was 40-49. Repeat visitors also had a higher level of education and income. In terms of demographic results, our results confirm previous studies that have shown that first-time visitors are usually younger (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984; Lau & McKercher, 2004).

Statistically significant differences existed in regard to comparing first-time and repeat visitors on the tripographic variables in regard to motivation, transportation, proximity, length of visit, number of people in group, and group type (Table 3). The top motivation to visit a national park for first-time visitors (23.3%) was building friendships, while for repeat visitors it was enhancing health (33.8%). In terms of travel time to the parks, 70.1% of first-time visitors traveled less than three hours compared with 74.3% of repeat visitors. As for who they traveled with, the average

Table 3. Results of tripographic comparison among first-time and repeat visitors

Category	*Overall*	*First-timer*	*Repeater*	*Chi-square*	*p*
Motivation					
Enhance health	32.5%	23.3%	33.8%	50.48	.<.001***
Build friendships	23.3%	29.4%	22.4%		
Appreciate scenery	19.3%	21.1%	19.0%		
Appreciate cultural assets	4.4%	3.7%	4.6%		
Relaxation	13.2%	14.0%	13.1%		
Proximity to other destinations	1.9%	2.6%	1.8%		
Lower travel costs	.9%	.9%	.9%		
Educational trip	1.5%	2.0%	1.5%		
Participate in festival/events	.7%	1.1%	.7%		
Park's proximity	1.2%	.6%	1.3%		
Other	.9%	1.3%	.9%		
Transportation					
Private vehicle	63.5%	62.7%	63.6%	30.03	.<.001***
Chartered bus	15.1%	16.2%	15.0%		
Intercity bus	6.5%	9.9%	6.0%		
Train (subway)	5.6%	4.4%	5.8%		
Intra-city bus	6.7%	5.2%	6.9%		
Taxi	.5%	.6%	.5%		
Other	2.1%	.9%	2.3%		
Proximity					
Less than 1 hour	23.7%	21.1%	24.1%	12.68	.027*
1-2 hours	26.0%	26.5%	25.9%		
2-3 hours	24.1%	22.5%	24.3%		
3-4 hours	15.7%	17.8%	15.4%		
4-5 hours	7.2%	7.4%	7.2%		
5 or more hours	3.3%	4.8%	3.0%		
Length of visit					
Less than 24 hours	70.4%	65.2%	71.1%	17.41	.002**
Two days	21.6%	27.1%	20.9%		
Three days	6.8%	7.1%	6.8%		
Four days	.8%	.4%	.9%		
Five or more days	.3%	.3%	.3%		
Number of people in group					
1	10.8%	5.5%	11.6%	29.01	<.001***
2	23.7%	22.8%	23.8%		
3-5	34.8%	37.3%	34.4%		
6+	30.7%	34.3%	30.3%		
Group type					
Alone	11.1%	5.9%	11.8%	51.27	<.001***
Family	33.9%	35.3%	33.7%		
Friends	30.9%	37.8%	30.0%		
Lover	8.8%	9.8%	8.7%		
Sports club	11.2%	7.3%	11.7%		
Local residents	2.3%	1.8%	2.4%		
Other	1.8%	2.1%	1.7%		

percentages were higher with family (first-time visitors 35.3% vs. repeat visitors 33.7%) although 37.8% of first-time visitors traveled with friends compared with only 30% for repeat visitors.

In comparing the satisfaction responses related to the park attributes/services for first-time and repeat visitors, the overall scores were similar, but mostly higher for repeat visitors on 14 out of 24 of the variables. Three items that scored relatively low on satisfaction (i.e., environmental pollution, cultural commercialization, public etiquette) demonstrated significant differences between first-time and repeat visitors with repeat visitors exhibiting a slightly higher score (more satisfied) on these three items.

The classifications for first-time and repeat visitors were made using a discriminant analysis focused on socio-demographics, tripographices, and satisfaction with park attributes/services. Group centroids for negative values were first-time visitors and positive values for repeat visitors, separating respondents who had not traveled to a Korean national park before (-.439) versus those who have visited Korean national parks (.060). The canonical correlation coefficient .160 identified that the discriminant results explained the differences between the groups. Furthermore, the Wilk's lambda value (.974) was also significant in regard to discriminating between the visitor groups (chi-square value =135.23, df =11).

The correlations between the discriminant function analysis, standard coefficients, and classification function coefficients of 11 discriminant variables are presented in Table 6. The discriminant analysis identified which variables

Table 4. Results of comparison between first-time and repeat visitors among park services.

Satisfaction[a]	*Overall visitors*			*First-time visitors*			*Repeat visitors*			*t*	*p*
	Mean	*N*	*SD*	*Mean*	*N*	*SD*	*Mean*	*N*	*SD*		
Overall satisfaction	4.00	6487	.752	4.02	781	.781	4.00	5706	.748	.450	.653
Natural landscape	4.33	6483	.731	4.35	782	.737	4.33	5701	.731	.741	.459
Travel expenses	3.89	6364	.890	3.92	774	.890	3.89	5590	.890	.790	.430
Length of trip	3.74	6283	.909	3.69	768	.936	3.74	5515	.905	-1.438	.150
Trails	3.97	6296	.836	3.95	771	.858	3.97	5525	.833	-.530	.596
Educational activities	3.70	5885	.881	3.71	733	.896	3.70	5152	.879	.195	.846
Transportation	3.66	6118	.949	3.67	747	.935	3.66	5371	.951	.364	.716
Accommodations	3.48	5441	.914	3.49	671	.869	3.48	4770	.920	.254	.800
Local cuisine	3.50	5755	.923	3.48	705	.915	3.50	5050	.924	-.424	.671
Historic sites/ places	3.61	5794	.915	3.62	714	.891	3.61	5080	.919	.301	.764
Tourism services	3.53	5746	.914	3.54	709	.869	3.53	5037	.921	.286	.775
Commodity prices	3.25	5621	.952	3.26	697	.925	3.25	4924	.955	.325	.745
Local food/crafts	3.19	5586	.966	3.14	690	.913	3.20	4896	.973	-1.465	.143
Parking fees	3.14	5884	1.116	3.09	715	1.104	3.15	5169	1.117	-1.312	.190
Crowding	2.88	6049	1.054	2.82	731	1.058	2.88	5318	1.054	-1.585	.113
Traffic	2.84	6091	1.091	2.78	736	1.092	2.85	5355	1.090	-1.555	.120
Environmental pollution	2.58	6088	1.054	2.51	735	1.048	2.59	5353	1.054	-1.964	.050*
Directional signs	2.69	6001	1.038	2.73	721	1.095	2.69	5280	1.030	.982	.326
Cultural commercialization[b]	2.49	5933	1.095	2.42	717	1.069	2.50	5216	1.098	-1.985	.047*
Restroom cleanliness	2.46	6097	1.068	2.45	745	1.089	2.46	5352	1.065	-.125	.900
Illegal cooking	2.29	5933	1.035	2.30	711	1.085	2.29	5222	1.028	.349	.727
Facilities	2.66	6042	1.069	2.63	720	1.096	2.66	5322	1.065	-.629	.530
Public etiquette[c]	2.69	6016	1.059	2.55	722	1.069	2.70	5294	1.057	-3.639	<.001***
Facilities for the handicapped	2.80	5899	1.069	2.78	706	1.095	2.80	5193	1.065	-.438	.662
Water pollution	2.27	6065	1.084	2.22	724	1.106	2.28	5341	1.081	-1.285	.199
Cronbach's alpha = .846											

[a] Satisfaction was measured on a 5-point Likert scale format from (1)= "very dissatisfied" to (5)= "very satisfied"

[b] Too much development in the park

[c] Courtesy of others and resource (English translation from Korean)

*Significant at p<.05, **Significant at p<.01, ***Significant at p<.001

Table 5. Results of canonical discriminant results of first-time and repeat visitors

Eigenvalue		.026
Canonical correlation		.160
Wilks's lambda		.974
χ^2		135.23
df		11
p		.000
Group centroids	First-time visitors	-.439
	Repeat visitors	.060

Table 6. Results of discriminant analysis results of first-time and repeat visitors

Variable	*Standardized Coefficients*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*Sig.*	*Classification function coefficients*	
						First-timer	*Repeater*
Group type	.207	.160	1	5204	.689	1.414	1.491
Length of visit	-.089	3.164	1	5204	.075	2.337	2.272
Proximity	-.093	1.636	1	5204	.201	.334	.300
Number of people in group	-.480	12.447	1	5204	.000	1.462	1.215
Environmental pollution	.007	5.965	1	5204	.015	1.041	1.044
Public etiquette	.219	15.377	1	5204	.000	1.518	1.622
Cultural commercialization	.104	6.995	1	5204	.008	.930	.978
Gender	-.277	25.858	1	5204	.000	8.098	7.818
Age	.807	77.635	1	5204	.000	.329	.365
Income	.058	1.756	1	5204	.185	1.419	1.440
Education	.146	.273	1	5204	.602	3.636	3.712

discriminated between the two groups. These results revealed three statistically significant park attributes/services and eight statistically significant socio-demographic and trip characteristics items (age, gender, income, education, group type, length of visit, proximity, number of people in the group).

Standardized canonical discriminant coefficients can be used to rank the importance of each variable. These results represent the unique contribution of each variable to the discriminant functions. Eleven variables were statistically significant and able to discriminate between the two groups (Hair, Bush, & Ortinau, 2003). Table 6 shows that age (.807) made the largest contribution to the function followed by the number of people in a group (-.480) and gender (-.277); environmental pollution (.007) was less successful as a predictor.

Thus, repeat visitors were characterized as being older individuals who were less satisfied with public etiquette, environmental pollution, and commercialization. Repeat visitors used private vehicles, stayed a shorter time, visited national parks more often, and lived closer. First-time visitors stayed longer and more often took the intercity bus. For group type, first-time visitors less often went by themselves, choosing to go more with family and friends, while repeat visitors more often went alone or with sports club members. For the number of visitors in the group, first-time visitors were characterized by larger groups and repeat visitors with smaller groups. The cross-validated classification results showed that 59.6% of the original and 59.4% of the cross-validation discriminant functions were correctly classified in the two groups.

V. Discussion and implications

This study examined visitors to Korean national parks based on national data from 17 parks in 2010. The research questions that guided this study explored what differences, if any, existed for park visitors related to socio-demographics, trip characteristics, satisfaction with park attributes/services, and frequency of visitation to the parks. Specifically, we examined what variables were most effective in regard to discriminating between first-time and repeat visitors to Korean national parks. This study is one of the few studies that have examined first-time and repeat visitors in Asian protected areas and Korean national parks. Given the fact that millions of visitors go to Korean national parks each year, it is necessary to learn more about visitors' characteristics and preferences to meet their individual needs. From a park management perspective, identifying more about these visitors will guide managers in regard to educating them about park resources and, at the same time, protecting the environmental integrity of the park for future generations. This information is helpful for the tourism industry in local communities and businesses near the national parks and in the surrounding regions.

The study results showed that a general profile of the respondents was about evenly split between male and female, the largest group was 30- to 49-years-old, almost 3/4 went to the parks for day use, most came with family or friends, and most came in groups of between three and five individuals. The top motivations for visiting parks were: enhancing health, building friendships, and appreciating scenery. The findings of this study showed that the majority of the visitors lived in Seoul and the surrounding metropolitan area; thus, they came from large urban areas and almost half of the sample's driving time was less than three hours from the parks (i.e., Incheon and Gyeonggi Province). Thus, many visitors from urban areas used these national parks for day use, which appears to be linked to a desire to improve their physical health. This finding is consistent with similar research about outdoor recreation in Korea, which found that more than 80% of forest recreationists mentioned "promotion and maintenance of health" as the top motivation for visiting a forest (Shin, 2007; Shin et al., 2010). A clear advantage of living in urban areas near these national parks is their proximity, thus users have the ability to go to these parks frequently and not only appreciate their natural scenery but use them to stay healthy and relax. As past research shows, outdoor recreation activities offer numerous benefits that reinforce positive social, physical, and psychological impacts. (Orsega-Smith et al., 2004). In Korea, national parks may function as a popular venue through which to engage in healthy recreation initiatives, which is particularly relevant given its aging population nationwide.

Overall, the visitors appeared satisfied with the programs and services offered in the parks (e.g., trails, transportation, educational activities). However, they appeared less satisfied about how the park's natural features were being degraded through water pollution, people cooking illegally, a commercialized environment, and the general condition of the facilities (e.g., restrooms). In addition, facilities for the handicapped were not rated highly as well, which may become more pertinent given the aging Korean population.

When examining how the two groups were classified by the study variables using discriminant analysis, the repeat visitors were characterized by age (older), gender (male), education (higher), and income (higher). Repeat visitors used private vehicles, were able to visit national parks more frequently, and stayed less than 24 hours. First-time visitors came in larger groups and visited more often with family and friends, while repeat visitors visited more often alone or with sports club members. First-time visitors stayed longer and took an intercity or tour bus.

When reporting level of satisfaction, the repeat visitors were more satisfied with the park attributes/services related to the discriminating variables: commercialization of the park, public etiquette, and water pollution. These results support the idea that a repeat visitor may have gotten used to the condition of the parks and grown accustomed to its current status.

Past research has shown that the majority of first-time visitors are more sensitive to potential threats to a park (Curtis, Weiler, & Ham, 2010). In this study, the repeat visitors may have become more tolerant of water pollution, commercialization, and discourteous people. Expectations by first-time visitors may be high; hence, they may assume that they will experience a more pristine environment with more undeveloped areas and a better quality of facilities and services. Since first-time visitors stay longer and travel in larger groups, it is critical for them to leave with positive experiences, so that they will return. From the perspective of the normative theory, the repeat visitors may feel that the "acceptable" conditions at a national park include areas that may be somewhat polluted and degraded. This level of satisfaction could be a basis for formulating their standards of quality (Manning, 2011) in a Korean national park.

Since repeat visitors visit often, their personal standards may be that pristine environmental conditions are unrealistic and, as such, they have become more tolerant to what they find there. While this study did not set out to measure normative standards of quality and national park conditions, this is an area suggested for future research. Our findings may not be the long-term impression Korean park managers want visitors to have when they experience a national park; thus, the need for improving park conditions is evident. Therefore, it is important for park managers to provide products and services that meet visitor expectations to increase their satisfaction and entice repeat visitation. Oppermann (1998) found that attracting repeat visitors is five to six times more effective in regard to enhancing and maintaining a strong visitation base. Thus, repeat visitors play a role in stable income sources, loyalty, and marketing strategies through word-of-mouth (Li et al., 2008; Reid & Reid, 1993).

Obtaining practical information on multifaceted interests and satisfaction is important to the knowledge concerning park management. Park managers need to consider different types of strategies for meeting visitor needs, so this knowledge contributes to park sustainability and increased tourism in local areas (Courtney, Hill, & Roberts, 2006; Fortin & Gagnon, 1999). Increased visitation to national parks, inadequate maintenance, and a lack of visitor education will have negative effects on resource conditions and facility and park amenities. Over the long-term, a degraded resource can also impact tourism revenue for local economies if visitors decide not to return to the parks. In this case, park managers can try to improve visitors' satisfaction during their park experiences and stimulate return visits through visitor programs, education, and relevant interpretations. For example, directional signage was not rated highly and this type of "fix" can be inexpensive and quick. Specific programs can be created so that visitors can learn more about conservation and stewardship and pass this environmental ethic on so that future generations can help sustain the natural resources (Choe et al., 2017). Since first-time visitors are younger, stay longer, and often come in larger groups, they are prime targets to educate on conservation practices. Striking a balance between nature-based tourism attractions, local tourism development, and the sustainability of parks and protected areas is critical and in need of further investigation in Korea and, more broadly, Asia.

It is suggested that research be conducted to examine the connection that visitors have to the national parks in order to explore their level of attachment and potential civic involvement. Past research has shown that place attachment by local residents to parks (mostly repeat visitors in this study) is an important component by which to get residents involved in public participation activities (Buta, Holland, & Kaplanidou, 2014). Park managers may need to interact more with local residents in the surrounding communities that so their level of involvement can be translated into positive conservation activities in the park and enhance the condition of the resources. These types of pro- environmental messages can be incorporated into the interpretive programs at local schools or the park.

Although this study breaks new ground in regard to examining Korean national park visitors, a data limitation stems from the use of only one year of data. Furthermore, as the visitors' characteristics and variables have changed in terms of the services and facilities of the national parks over 10 years, this study could not compare recent data due to the inconsistency in the items included in the questionnaires. Therefore, multiple years of data were not available by which to measure trends or social changes. Despite the data limitations, the findings of this study have value in that they will allow researchers to identify the effect of services and facilities on visitors' experiences, focusing on first-time and repeat visitors to 17 national parks in Korea (Lee et al., 2016). This study is valuable in light of the literature, which contributes to the study of visitors, national park management, and tourism in Korea. Given the predetermined variables measured in this secondary dataset, future research could include additional variables, such as expenditures, sources of information, activities, local attractions visited, marital status, and family life cycle stage.

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Investigation of Indonesian Muslims' dietary situations in Taiwan to explore the Muslim-friendly standards implementable in the non-Muslim society

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Abstract

To probe a Muslim-friendly regulation which may be more implementable than the original Halal standards in Taiwan, this study tried to explore Muslims' bottom line of acceptance for different dietary cultures when they are exposed to a place where Islam is not the main religion. In view of geographic position and population size, Indonesian Muslims are the most important Muslim customers for Taiwanese market, so this study focused on Indonesian Muslims' dietary situations in Taiwan. A questionnaire survey was conducted and 233 adequate responses were collected from 3 groups of Indonesian Muslims in Taiwan. The results showed that most of the long/medium-period Indonesian Muslim residents prefer preparing their daily foods to taking the foods supplied by their employers or school canteens. General markets are their major shopping places for foods/food raw materials without special taboos. Multiple choices from 19 categories of foods revealed that they are not used to the Western-style foods. Statistical analyses on the acceptability of the 13 non-Halal scenarios indicated that Indonesian Muslims do not expect the foods/restaurants of 100% Halal qualified in Taiwan. As long as "no pork and no alcohol" can be assured by the credible institutes, many Taiwanese foods and restaurants can be well accepted by the Indonesian Muslims.

Key words: Indonesian Muslims, Non-Halal dietary scenarios, Acceptance levels, Muslim-friendly implementation

I. Introduction & Literature review

Taiwanese religions and living habits are very different from Muslims'. Most Taiwanese are unfamiliar with "Islam"

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and inexperienced with its relevant doctrines and customs. However because of globalization, these years it can be found that more and more Muslims are coming to Taiwan. Owing to Taiwanese natural enthusiasm for hospitality, and also the "New Southbound Policy" of Taiwanese government which planned to enhance the market layout on the Southeast Asian where live quite a few Muslims (New southbound policy, 2018), many Taiwanese tourism-related schools and business, such as restaurants and hotels, are encouraged to pay more attention to Muslim culture and try to create a more friendly environment to cater Muslims' needs.

Certification of Halal Assurance System (HAS) gives Muslims the greatest trust (Mohayidin & Kamarulzaman, 2014). In addition to the international Halal authentication centers individually with various regulation standards (Abd Latif, et al., 2014), there are also local Halal certification institutes in Taiwan, such as Chinese Muslim Association, Islamic Association of Taiwan, Taiwan Halal Integrity Development Association (THIDA), and the mosques in Taiwan. Even though Taiwan is not an Islamic country, all of the Halal inspection rules in Taiwan were laid down by Muslims and the provisions are quite big challenges for most of the Taiwanese business, especially the small and medium enterprises (SME). Not only some of the international researches have suggested to simplify the Halal certification procedures to assist small entrepreneurs (Shariff & Abd Lah, 2014), but some of the Taiwanese certification centers also considered that it could be an exorbitant demand for the Taiwanese SME applicants to entirely satisfy the Halal requirements all at once, since there exists such a big culture gap between Taiwanese and Muslim societies. Therefore, Chinese Muslim Association issues two logos for the Taiwanese catering, MR (Muslim Restaurants) and MFR (Muslim Friendly Restaurants), which are assessed based on the same standards except for the operators/business owners who are Muslims and non-Muslims, respectively.

In consideration of the conflict risks that may occur in the fusion of two cultures, incremental modification is generally more agreeable than fierce enforcement. It has been recommended by some Taiwanese researchers to supply a new assessment system composed of various Muslim-friendly levels to guide the Taiwanese SME to advance their business in an orderly way step by step close to the requirements of HAS. Before actualizing this proposal, the legislation and classification of the inspection criteria for the new assessment system should be carefully studied to solicit Muslims' consent. On the other hand, Muslims from various regions may ask for the Halal services to distinct extents (Walker, et al., 2007), which could be speculated from the different Halal regulation standards implemented in different countries (Abd Latif, et al, 2014; Othman, Md Shaarani, & Bahron, 2016). It is also said that Muslims are allowed to execute their religious rules less strictly in some special situations (Musharraf, 2016). Therefore, we conducted a preliminary study with questionnaire to explore Muslims' bottom line of acceptance for different cultures when they are exposed to a place where Islam is not the main religion. Thereafter based on the bottom line revealed, gradually improved Muslim-friendly levels may be adopted by the businessmen according to their individual business strategies.

Many researches have indicated that availability of Halal foods is one of the most important factors affecting Muslims' destination determination (Salman & Fan, 2018; Henderson, 2016; Hassan, 2015). Our pre-interviews with several Muslim students studying in Taiwan also disclosed that eating is the most troublesome problem for their life in Taiwan. Therefore, the questionnaire of this research focused on the theme of foods and restaurants.

II. Methodology

1. Respondents

The Indonesian Muslims staying in Taiwan were selected for this questionnaire survey as most Muslims in Taiwan appear to be from Indonesia. According to KMIT (Keluatga Muslim Indonesia di Taiwan, an umbrella organization for the Indonesian Muslims in Taiwan), there are about 300,000 Indonesian Muslim residents in Taiwan currently. Also, Indonesian Muslim tourists to Taiwan have reached 189,000 people in 2016 (Weaver, S., 2017). From September to December of 2018, through our Indonesian

Muslim students' help, the questionnaires, in Bahasa Indonesia, were delivered to Indonesian Muslim workers visiting the Taipei and Kaohsiung main stations, Indonesian Muslim students at three universities in Kaohsiung, and Indonesian Muslim tourists from 3 tour operators, one in Taipei and two in Kaohsiung. All respondents received a small gift of a bar of soap for completing the questionnaires. Besides the small gift, the compatriot relationship between our students and the respondents could be more helpful for the high response rate (94.6%).

2. Questionnaire design

The questionnaire consisted of three sections. Section 1 confirmed the respondents' general information, including nationality, religion, gender, age, residence status, stay period, and accommodation condition (cooking possibility) in Taiwan. Section 2 clarified the respondents' diet in Taiwan with multiple choice questions for food sources and food types. Finally, thirteen scenarios (H_1 - H_{13} listed in Appendix 1) which were often debated or emphasized in our Halal-related courses were presented in section 3 to explore the respondents' levels of open mindedness for non-Halal foods/dining environments. The respondents were requested to grade these 13 scenarios by three scores, -1, 0, or 1, to convey 3 levels of acceptance, "absolutely unacceptable", "conditionally acceptable" and "undoubtedly acceptable", respectively. In the questionnaire, "absolutely unacceptable" was expressed as "I absolutely cannot accept it", "conditionally acceptable" was illustrated as "if there is no other choice, I may accept it", and "undoubtedly acceptable" was explained as "there is no problem for me to accept it".

3. Statistical analysis

After collecting 246 responses and excluding the ones with inadequate answers, 233 responses from 63 workers, 87 students and 83 tourists were available. XLSTAT (2017, Addinsoft, France) was used for analysis. Chi-square test was applied to identify differences for the acceptance data of section 3. Correspondence analysis was also performed to classify the 13 non-Halal scenarios according to Indonesian Muslims' acceptance levels.

III. Results

1. The respondents' general background

Demographic characteristics of the 233 respondents are listed in Table 1. According to their resident statuses, the Indonesian Muslims in Taiwan were classified into three major groups: workers, students, and tourists. The average stay in Taiwan for worker respondents was (4.87 + 3.52) years (range: 6 months-14 years), and they were considered to be long-period residents in Taiwan. Among the student respondents, there were more than 40% freshmen with stays of 1-2 months. The other undergraduates and few graduates stayed between 7 months and 3.5 years. The overall average stay for the student respondent group was (5.17 + 4.43) months, and they were considered to be medium-period residents in Taiwan. The average stay in Taiwan for the tourist respondents was (6.33 + 1.06) days (range: 5-8 days), and they were considered to be short-term visitors to Taiwan.

In all groups of the Indonesian Muslims, there were more females than males, particularly in the groups of long and medium-period residents. Many Indonesian workers in Taiwan engaged in housework/long-term care for which the female workers were generally more desirable. It was therefore understandable that there were more female Indonesian Muslim workers than the male ones in Taiwan. However, it was surprising that there were more female Indonesian Muslim students with a female to male ratio of 2.62 : 1, contrary to people's traditional impression that discrimination against women being a common social phenomenon in the Muslim-majority countries (Gouda & Potrafke, 2016; Rahman, 2012). Compared to the females of other Islamic countries, Indonesian Muslim females seem to be more respected and have more opportunities for higher educations.

The major of Indonesian Muslims in Taiwan are the young people aged 20 - 40. Due to the "New Southbound Policy" of Taiwanese government, more and more Indonesian Muslim students younger than 20 years old are also recruited

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the Indonesian Muslim respondents for this survey

Characteristics	***Residence statuses***		
	Workers (N=63)	***Students (N=87)***	***Tourists (N=83)***
Gender			
Male	36.51%	27.59%	44.58%
Female	63.49%	72.41%	55.42%
Age			
< 20 years old	0	44.83%	0
21− 30 years old	34.93%	50.57%	51.81%
31− 40 years old	36.50%	3.45%	42.17%
41− 50 years old	28.57%	1.15%	4.82%
> 50 years old	0	0	1.20%
Accommodation condition (Cooking is allowed)	77.78%	90.80%	1.20%
Average stay period in Taiwan	(4.87 + 3.52) years	(5.17 + 4.43) months	(6.33 + 1.06) days

Table 2. Sources of the Indonesian Muslims' foods / food raw materials in Taiwan (Multiple choices from the sources S1 − S6)

Sources of foods/food raw materials	***Residence statuses N (%)***		
	Workers (N=63)	***Students (N=87)***	***Tourists (N=83)***
S1. The foods supplied by employers or school cafeterias except for the ones with pork/alcohol ingredients	17 (26.98%)	9 (10 34%)	0
S2. General supermarkets, grocery stores convenience stores, or traditional markets	51 (80.95%)	86 (98.85%)	80 (96.39%)
S3. The supermarkets with special Halal zones	31 (49.21%)	21 (24.14%)	1 (1.20%)
S4. Online shopping where Halal foods are provided	12 (19.05%)	8 (9.20%)	2 (2.41%)
S5. Some special Halal stores*	16 (25.40%)	34 (39.08%)	8 (9.64%)
S6. Local mosques	8 (12.70%)	37 (42.53%)	2 (2.41%)

Note: *In some areas of Taiwan, including Taipei and Kaohsiung, there are few special Halal stores run by the ASEAN Muslims who are married to Taiwanese.

by Taiwanese universities currently. These young Indonesian Muslims are expected to be the important consumers for Taiwanese restaurant/hospitality industry in the near future. However, most of the long and medium-period Indonesian Muslim residents seemed to prefer accommodations that allowed them to prepare their daily foods. Many workers for housework/long-term care live with their employers, and preparing foods for their employers is one of their major works, so naturally they have the environments to cook their own foods every day (77.78%). However, most of the Indonesian Muslim students (90.80%) seemed to give up the school dorm rooms for which the foreign students are usually given the priority of application. In contrast to Taiwanese students who mostly eat out, the Indonesian Muslim students seem to feel more comfortable preparing their daily foods by themselves.

2. Indonesian Muslims' dietary situations in Taiwan

Sources of the Indonesian Muslims' foods/food raw materials in Taiwan. The 6 possible sources of foods/food raw materials (S1 – S6) for the Indonesian Muslims in Taiwan are listed in Table 2. For all of the Indonesian Muslims, the general supermarkets, grocery stores, convenience stores or traditional markets are their most important sources of foods/food raw materials in Taiwan. Even though there are some supermarkets with special Halal zones, they are not these Muslims' first choice for shopping. Perhaps such supermarkets are few in Taiwan or the imported products are higher in prices as Taiwan has no FTA partnership with any Islamic countries.

It is known that many Taiwanese employers and school cafeterias provide foods to their employees and students, respectively. Especially, many school canteens allow students to choose from various cuisines. However, the foods seem not appreciated by the Muslim residents (Only 26.98% of workers and 10.34% of students have taken foods supplied by their employers and school cafeterias, respectively). It seems that even though there are the meals prepared from the non-pork/non-alcohol ingredients, the cooking tools or tableware that may be contaminated with the non-Muslim foods could be these Muslims' another misgiving.

In Taiwan, online shopping has been a universal shopping style, and its good prices and fast delivery have been broadly praised. However, not many Muslim residents are taking advantage of this shopping pipeline. The reasons need to be further studied, but it seems that comprehension of the online sales language can be a major obstacle. In some areas of Taiwan, including Taipei and Kaohsiung, there are few special Halal stores run by the ASEAN Muslims who are married to Taiwanese. These kinds of stores are not widely distributed, but they could be patronized by a few regular Muslim customers.

Even though few Taiwanese embrace Islam, there are mosques of different sizes in several big cities of Taiwan, such as Taipei and Kaohsiung. Sometimes these mosques are arranged as sightseeing spots for the Muslim tourists by the Taiwanese travel agencies. However, the habit of attending mosques regularly seems more difficult to maintain as the stay period is extended. Among the Indonesian Muslim residents, the proportion of the medium-period residents who attend mosques seem higher than that of the long-period residents. Devotion may not be the only consideration, because the students definitely have much more free time than the workers.

The food categories consumed by the Indonesian Muslims in Taiwan. The food categories listed in Table 3 cover most of the foods that can be easily purchased everywhere in Taiwan. Rice and noodles are the major staple foods for the Indonesian Muslims in Taiwan. The number of Indonesian Muslims who eat cereals is lower than those who eat rice and noodles. Besides cereals, the Western-style foods, such as pizza and sandwich, seem also not to be favored by the Indonesian Muslims. On the other hand, the baking industry in Taiwan has been very developed, and many Taiwanese bakers' innovative elements have been added to the bakery products whose flavors and appearances have been differentiated from the traditional Western cakes or breads (e.g. scallion or garlic flavored breads). It may be the reason why the Taiwanese bakery products are more acceptable than pizza/sandwich for the medium and long-period Indonesian Muslim residents who are not used to the Western-style foods. However compared to the bakery products, many Taiwanese-style desserts, e.g. shaved ice, sticky rice cake and pineapple cake, may be less filling. Even though sometimes they are introduced to the tourists (60.24%) as a Taiwanese feature which could be consumed at the scene or purchased as souvenirs, many medium and long-period Indonesian Muslim residents may not consider them as essential foods. By definition, beverages are also non-essential foods, but drinking beverages is a common habit in the Taiwanese society. Many kinds of beverage stores are spreading all over the streets, and various ready-to-drink beverages are also available in the convenience stores in Taiwan. After a greasy meal or during the hard work/study, rewarding themselves with a cup/bottle of delicious beverage has been a little happiness for Taiwanese. Many Indonesian Muslim residents and visitors also enjoy beverages in Taiwan, and significantly, they prefer the Taiwanese tea beverages (71.08 - 77.78%) over coffee (47.62 - 49.43%). Taiwanese teas are not only delicious, but also good sources of antioxidants. No matter why these Indonesian Muslim residents (95.24% of workers and 82.76% of students) consumed fruits in Taiwan, it is sure that fruits also play an important role of antioxidants in their life in Taiwan.

Traditionally, cooked vegetables are indispensable daily foods for Indonesian Muslims. Many Indonesian Muslims still cannot accept uncooked or fermented vegetables. However as their stay periods extend, the proportions of salad and pickle consumptions increase. For many vegetarians, soybeans are important protein sources. In Taiwan, the soybean processing industry has been well developed for a long time, and with the advanced soybean processing techniques, soybeans are processed into various foods or cooking ingredients. Many Indonesian Muslims (66.67 - 73.49%) enjoy the soybean products in Taiwan. Notwithstanding this, the flavor of eggs, another category of economic protein source, seems more attractive than that of soybean products for the medium and long-period residents (81.61% - 85.71%). Milk products are not cheap in Taiwan. They can be not only consumed alone, but also added to the other products, such as teas or coffee. In the group of students who consume the most cereals (45.98%), their proportion of milk consumption is also the highest (74.71%). It is undeniable that milk goes well with cereals.

For many Muslims, animal meats are a category of food loved and scrupled. In many training courses of HAS, the slaughter method for the edible animals is always emphasized and it is one of the key points for Halal regulation. Taiwanese and Muslim cultures are very different and it is difficult to acquire Halal certificated meats in Taiwan. Currently, Muslims are small in numbers in Taiwan, and few Taiwanese restaurants use imported Halal meats that greatly increase the business operating costs. Among the three categories of animal meets (seafood, poultry, and beef), seafood is supposed to be relatively "safe" for Muslims, because there is no extra requirement for its slaughter method based on HAS regulation. However according to the result of Table 3, seafood, compared to the other meats, seems not especially popular among the Indonesian Muslims. For the long-period residents, the delicious poultry products with affordable prices are their favorite choices (76.19%). On the other hand, the price of beef is much higher than the other meats and may not be affordable by students (35.63%). However, many tourists desire more luxury foods (80.72%). The information from the travel guides revealed that Indonesian Muslim tourists were more likely to complaint if the ratio of meats, especially beef, in the meals arranged for the Indonesian Muslim tourists had been too low. It was also observed that the proportion of tourists who consumed cooked vegetables

Table 3. The food categories consumed by the Indonesian Muslim respondents in Taiwan (Multiple choices for the foods consumed)

Food consumed in Taiwan	***Residence statuses N (%)***		
	Workers (N=63)	***Students (N=87)***	***Tourists (N=83)***
Rice	63 (100%)	87 (100%)	83 (100%)
Noodle	58 (92.06%)	76 (87.36%)	67 (80.72%)
Cereals	17 (26.98%)	40 (45.98%)	16 (19.28%)
Pizza without pork ingredients	21 (33.33%)	25 (28.74%)	39 (46.99%)
Sandwich without pork ingredient	20 (31.75%)	24 (27.59%)	31 (37.35%)
Bakery products, such as cakes and breads	42 (66.67%)	68 (78.16%)	39 (46.99%)
Taiwanese-style desserts (e.g. shaved ice, sticky rice cake, and pineapple cake)	21 (33.33%)	43 (49.43%)	50 (60.24%)
Taiwanese tea beverages, such as bubble teas or ready-to-drink teas	49 (77.78%)	64 (73.56%)	59 (71.08%)
Coffee (freshly prepared or ready-to-drink styles)	30 (47.62%)	43 (49.43%)	41 (49.40%)
Fruits	60 (95.24%)	72 (82.76%)	46 (55.42%)
Cooked vegetables	53 (84.13%)	67 (77.01%)	42 (50.60%)
Uncooked vegetables (e.g. salad)	33 (52.38%)	22 (25.29%)	19 (22.89%)
Fermented vegetables (e.g. pickle)	25 (39.68%)	17 (19.54%)	12 (14.46%)
Soybean products (e.g. tofu, soybean milk, soybean pudding, and soy sauce)	43 (68.25%)	58 (66.67%)	61 (73.49%)
Eggs of various cooking styles	54 (85.71%)	71 (81.61%)	54 (65.06%)
Milk and its related products, such as yogurt	42 (66.67%)	65 (74.71%)	41 (49.40%)
Seafood or its related products. (e.g. Japanese sushi)	30 (47.62%)	54 (62.07%)	46 (55.42%)
Poultry products (e.g. fried chicken and smoked duck)	48 (76.19%)	58 (66.67%)	48 (57.83%)
Beef products (e.g. beef noodle, curry beef, and beef sausage)	37 (58.73%)	31 (35.63%)	67 (80.72%)

Table 4. Acceptance levels by the three groups of Indonesian Muslims in Taiwan for the 13 non-Halal dietary scenarios (Please refer H_1-H_{13} to Appendix 1).

Non-Halal scenarios	*Residence statuses*	*Acceptance levels N (%)*			*χ^2 values*
		-1	*0*	*1*	
H_1	Workers	4 (6.35%)	23 (36.51%)	36 (57.14%)	54.44*
	Students	12 (13.79%)	40 (47.13%)	35 (39.08%)	
	Tourists	38 (45.78%)	6 (7.23%)	39 (46.99%)	
H_2	Workers	3 (4.76%)	24 (38.10%)	36 (57.14%)	63.22*
	Students	12 (13.79%)	48 (55.17%)	27 (31.04%)	
	Tourists	33 (39.76%)	5 (6.02%)	45 (54.22%)	
H_3	Workers	2 (3.17%)	22 (34.92%)	39 (61.91%)	28.60*
	Students	6 (6.90%)	39 (44.82%)	42 (48.28%)	
	Tourists	17 (20.48%)	11 (13.25%)	55 (66.27%)	
H_4	Workers	1 (1.59%)	21 (33.33%)	41 (65.08%)	34.20*
	Students	8 (9.20%)	42 (48.27%)	37 (42.53%)	
	Tourists	13 (15.66%)	9 (10.84%)	61 (73.50%)	
H_5	Workers	5 (9.53%)	21 (33.33%)	37 (57.14%)	52.85*
	Students	29 (34.48%)	38 (43.68%)	20 (21.84%)	
	Tourists	18 (21.69%)	6 (7.23%)	59 (71.08%)	
H_6	Workers	4 (6.35%)	23 (36.51%)	36 (57.14%)	47.16*
	Students	39 (44.83%)	31 (35.63%)	17 (19.54%)	
	Tourists	30 (36.14%)	9 (10.84%)	44 (53.02%)	
H_7	Workers	2 (3.17%)	19 (30.16%)	42 (66.67%)	14.06*
	Students	3 (3.45%)	19 (21.84%)	65 (74.71%)	
	Tourists	6 (7.23%)	6 (7.23%)	71 (85.54%)	
H_8	Workers	4 (6.35%)	18 (30.16%)	41 (63.49%)	12.10*
	Students	13 (14.94%)	18 (20.69%)	56 (64.37%)	
	Tourists	13 (15.67%)	7 (8.43%)	63 (75.90%)	
H_9	Workers	12 (19.05%)	15 (23.81%)	36 (57.14%)	50.39*
	Students	16 (18.39%)	52 (60.92%)	19 (20.69%)	
	Tourists	31 (37.35%)	11 (13.25%)	41 (49.40%)	
H_{10}	Workers	16 (25.40%)	20 (31.75%)	27 (41.27%)	32.27*
	Students	28 (32.18%)	47 (52.87%)	12 (14.95%)	
	Tourists	33 (39.76%)	15 (18.07%)	35 (42.17%)	
H_{11}	Workers	5 (7.94%)	18 (28.57%)	40 (63.49%)	34.17*
	Students	4 (4.60%)	51 (58.62%)	32 (36.78%)	
	Tourists	8 (9.64%)	14 (16.87%)	61 (73.49%)	
H_{12}	Workers	3 (4.76%)	14 (22.22%)	46 (73.02%)	26.59*
	Students	8 (9.20%)	40 (45.98%)	39 (44.82%)	
	Tourists	9 (10.84%)	11 (13.25%)	63 (75.91%)	
H_{13}	Workers	2 (3.17%)	14 (22.22%)	47 (74.61%)	9.61*
	Students	5 (5.75%)	22 (25.29%)	60 (68.96%)	
	Tourists	6 (7.23%)	7 (8.43%)	70 (84.34%)	

Note: For each scenario, the χ^2 value marked with * indicates the significant difference ($p < 0.05$) of acceptance levels among the three groups of Indonesian Muslims.

Acceptance levels:
-1: Absolutely unacceptable
0: Conditionally acceptable
1: Undoubtedly acceptable

(50.60%) was much lower than those of students (77.01%) and workers (84.13%).

3. Indonesian Muslims' open mindedness for the non-Halal foods and dining environments

In the third section of this questionnaire survey, 13 scenarios, H_1-H_{13} listed in Appendix 1, were conveyed to explore how the non-Halal foods and dining environments can be accepted by the Indonesian Muslims in Taiwan. Scores -1, 0, and 1 were used to describe 3 levels of acceptance: "absolutely unacceptable", "conditionally acceptable", and "undoubtedly acceptable", respectively. The first 6 scenarios (H_1-H_6) were focused on the food ingredients, and the 7th - 12th scenarios (H_7-H_{12}) were aimed at the dining environments. Actually, all of these 12 scenarios could be real situations occurring in these Muslims' daily life in Taiwan, because except for some high-class hotels, there are still few Halal foods/restaurants in Taiwan at present. Until now, all Halal related regulations or evaluations in Taiwan have been processed by religious organizations, not involving the Taiwanese government. Most of the regulation standards in Taiwan are copied from the Islamic countries (mostly from Malaysia), but they may be impracticable in Taiwan. Some caterers and researchers have suggested the Taiwanese government to issue Muslim friendly certification based on simpler standards that are acceptable to Muslims and implementable by Taiwanese businessmen. According to our preparatory studies, pork and alcohol are the two main taboos for the Indonesian Muslims' daily foods in Taiwan. Therefore, the 13th scenario (H_{13}) was to consult Indonesian Muslims' opinions for the new regulation standard.

The responses for the 13 scenarios from the three groups of Indonesian Muslims are listed in Table 4. As shown by the χ^2 value calculated for each scenario, it could be concluded that there existed significant differences ($p < 0.05$) of acceptance levels among these three groups of Muslims for all of the 13 scenarios:

For most of the scenarios, there were more responses of "undoubtedly acceptable" than those of "conditionally acceptable" and "absolutely unacceptable" within the worker group. It seemed that foreigners may eventually get used to the local customs after long terms of residence. In

Table 5. Total Indonesian Muslims' 3 levels of acceptance for the 13 non-Halal dietary scenarios (Please refer H_1-H_{13} to Appendix 1).

Non-Halal scenarios	*Acceptance levels N (%)*			*χ^2 values*
	-1	*0*	*1*	
H_1	54 (23.18%)	69 (29.61%)	110 (47.21%)	2.40
H_2	48 (20.60%)	77 (33.05%)	108 (46.35%)	2.58
H_3	25 (10.73%)	72 (30.90%)	136 (58.37%)	8.88*
H_4	22 (9.44%)	72 (30.90%)	139 (59.66%)	9.87*
H_5	52 (22.32%)	65 (27.90%)	116 (49.78%)	3.27
H_6	73 (31.33%)	63 (27.04%)	97 (41.63%)	0.87
H_7	11 (4.72%)	44 (18.88%)	178 (76.40%)	22.38*
H_8	30 (12.88%)	43 (18.45%)	160 (68.67%)	14.67*
H_9	59 (25.32%)	78 (33.48%)	96 (41.20%)	0.98
H_{10}	77 (33.05%)	82 (35.19%)	74 (31.76%)	0.05
H_{11}	17 (7.30%)	83 (35.62%)	133 (57.08%)	9.69*
H_{12}	20 (8.58%)	65 (27.90%)	148 (63.52%)	12.06*
H_{13}	13 (5.58%)	43 (18.45%)	177 (75.97%)	21.82*

Note: The χ^2 values marked with * indicate the significant differences ($p < 0.05$) of acceptance levels.

Acceptance levels:
-1: Absolutely unacceptable
0: Conditionally acceptable
1: Undoubtedly acceptable

many scenarios (e.g. H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4, H_5, H_9, H_{10}, H_{11}, and H_{12}), people who chose "conditionally acceptable" in the student group were much more than those in the worker and tourist groups. It seemed that many of the medium-period residents have not adjusted well to the Taiwanese foods/dining environments about which the students may feel uncomfortable more frequently than workers and tourists. It was interesting to find that among these three groups, the lowest proportions of "conditionally acceptable" response for the 13 scenarios always appeared in the tourist group. Tourists' choices tended to be the two extremes, "absolutely unacceptable" or "undoubtedly acceptable". These short-term visitors might be mentally prepared to experience different cultures/foods before travelling abroad or made up their mind to avoid some foods during the travel period, since it may not be difficult to exercise restraint for a short period of time.

Three levels of responses from the total Indonesian Muslims for the 13 non-Halal scenarios are shown in Table 5. For each scenario, Chi-square test was also performed to identify the difference among these 3 acceptance levels:

Overall, Indonesian Muslims who undoubtedly accept scenarios H_3, H_4, H_7, H_8, H_{11}, H_{12}, and H_{13} are significantly more than those who absolutely cannot accept them. According to H_3 and H_4, it could be inferred that eggs, seafood and vegetables are the three categories of foods which can be more easily accepted by the Indonesian Muslims when not Halal certificated. For the dining environments, Indonesian Muslims actually do not mind much about the decorations of restaurants (H_{11} and H_{12}). Indonesian Muslims probably understand that it is difficult for Taiwanese to give up pork and alcohol in cooking, so they may not expect the standardized Halal kitchens to be in widespread use in Taiwan. As long as the Muslim and non-Muslim foods are separately prepared with the specific cooking tools and served with the specific tableware (H_7), and the diners for Muslim and non-Muslim foods are arranged to dine in the different dining areas (H_8), the Taiwanese restaurants can be highly accepted by Indonesian Muslims. On the other hand, there was no significant difference in the acceptance levels for scenarios H_1, H_2, H_5, H_6, H_9, and H_{10}. It means that quite a few of Indonesian Muslim respondents could not accept these situations. Milk (H_2), poultry (H_5), and beef (H_6) could be the animal foods to which Indonesian Muslims are more sensitive. For the desserts or beverages on which even though "no animal and alcohol ingredients" had been marked by the manufacturers, many of the respondents still couldn't completely rest assured (H_1). Therefore, the assurance issued by a credible institute, such as government, can be more trustworthy. Indonesian Muslims don't require Taiwanese restaurants to completely comply with the Halal standards. As long as "no pork and no alcohol" is guaranteed by a credible institute, the Taiwanese restaurants/foods can be recognized as Muslim friendly and undoubtedly accepted (H_{13}).

Based on correspondence analysis, the positions of these 13 scenarios related to the three levels of acceptance are shown in Figure 1. There are seven situations (H_3, H_4, H_7, H_8, H_{11}, H_{12}, and H_{13}) well accepted by Indonesian Muslims. Among the four scenarios conditionally accepted (H_1, H_2, H_5, and H_9), H_9 is the one closest to "absolutely unacceptable". Quite a few Indonesian Muslims don't feel comfortable using restrooms of non-Muslim installation. Finally, H_{10} and H_6 are the two scenarios unaccepted by the most Indonesian Muslims. H_{10} discussed about dogs that are common house pets in many Taiwanese families. However, some dogs may be accidently separated or intentionally abandoned by their owners, and orphan dogs can sometimes be seen walking on the streets in some rural areas of Taiwan. For Muslims, dogs are animals as unclean as pigs. Muslims may be put off by seeing dogs around the restaurants. According to H6, Indonesian Muslims have no confidence for beef without Halal certification. Compared to the other animal meats (e.g. H_4 and H_5), Muslims' criticism for beef seems especially strict. After certain culinary treatments, such as boiling with soy sauce or curry, beef and pork may not be well distinguished by appearance. On the other hand, steak, another kind of beef product, is often served lightly cooked. Animal's blood is also Muslims' taboo, so it is not supposed to appear in their foods.

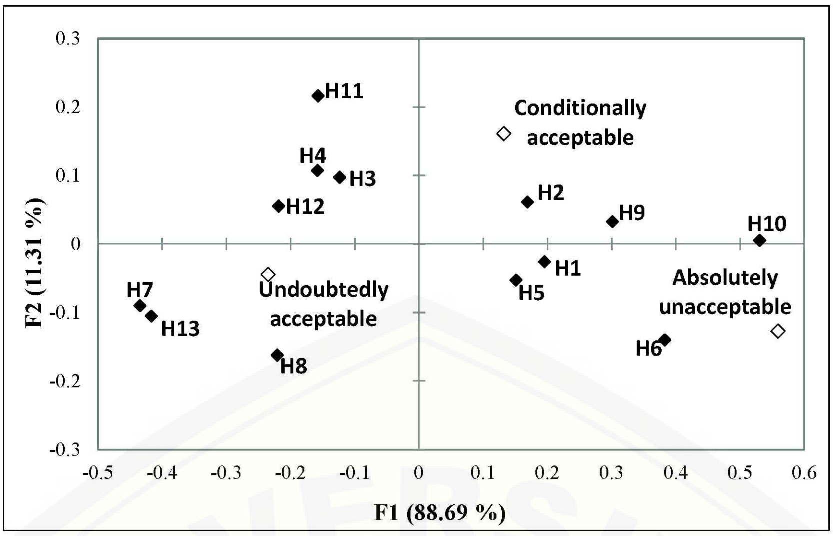

Figure 1. Correspondence analysis of the three acceptance levels for the 13 non-Halal scenarios by Indonesian Muslims (Please refer H_1-H_{13} to Appendix 1).

IV. Discussion

Globalization has been an inevitable trend. More and more Muslims have to leave their native lands to non-Muslim world. It is curious how the Muslims survive in the non-Muslim societies and how much they can accept the non-Halal foods and dining environments. On the other hand, even though Taiwanese would like to be friendly to Muslims, it's very difficult for the Taiwanese society to entirely comply with the Halal standards. For example, pork is the most important animal meat for Taiwanese, and it accounts for half of the total meats consumed by Taiwanese yearly (Tsai, Qiu, & Liu, 2016). Also, alcohol is an important flavor seasoning in Taiwanese cooking. Therefore, it is necessary for both, Taiwanese and Muslims, to understand each other more and try to make adjustments acceptable by both.

In recent years, many young Indonesian Muslims are going abroad for various purposes, and they have to experience different dietary situations outside the Muslim world. For the short-term visitors (tourists), they mainly go shopping in the general supermarkets/markets without special taboos. According to their contracts with the travel agencies, they may be guided to dine in a limited number of high-class restaurants/hotels with Halal certifications, or by themselves, they restrain their desires for some foods within the short period of travel. However, about half of the Indonesian Muslim tourists are open-minded for non-Halal foods (Table 4). As long as the foods don't contain pork and alcohol ingredients, these open-minded Muslims are willing to taste the new flavors. Compared to the students and workers, the tourists also desire more luxury foods with sufficient quantity of meats, especially beef. For the workers with the average stay period in Taiwan for about 5 years, they have almost adapted to the dietary situations in Taiwan and show the highest acceptance for the non-Halal foods and dining environments. In Taiwan, egg and poultry products are these workers' major protein sources. As the stay period extended, they also gradually accept the vegetables of various preparation, such as salad and pickles. Among these three groups of Indonesian Muslims in Taiwan, students showed the highest struggle for survival with the non-Halal foods and dining environments. There are still many hesitations for the residents of several-month stay to overcome. For the innocent young people (more than 40% of the student respondents are even younger than 20 years old), there must exist a certain degree of difficulty to change their diet habits/concepts. Most of them give up the dorm rooms supplied by schools and rent accommodations with cooking facilities to prepare their own daily foods. For them, cereals with milk are convenient for simultaneously solving the hunger and nutritious problems, even though originally they might not be used to this kind of Western food as well as milk with no Halal certification.

Taiwanese like to provide a friendly dietary environment for Muslims, but compliance with the Halal regulation is very difficult due to the big cultural differences. However, the results of this survey showed that some practices may be tried. Firstly, more menus without pork and alcohol ingredients can be designed and prepared for Muslim customers. Secondly, Taiwanese government or other credible organizations should play a role in ensuring the "safety" of the menus/foods based on the key point: neither pork nor alcohol is used. Such assurance is particularly important for beef dishes. For the Taiwanese restaurants, preparing and serving Muslim and non-Muslim foods using separate cooking tools and tableware are feasible at present. This practice is especially recommended to the school canteens. It will be greatly appreciated by Muslims if the restaurants can have a specific dining area dedicated to Muslims. It is also very important to cooperate with the local environment agencies to ensure absence of stray dogs around restaurants. Furthermore, the restaurant operators can gradually change their toilets to the washlet style as in many hotels having Muslim customers. Restaurants meeting the criteria mentioned above may be recognized as "Muslim friendly". With this basic friendly level, if the numbers of Muslim customers increase in the future, the Taiwanese caterers may further advance their friendly levels to strive for more Muslim customers.

V. Conclusion & Implications

Globalization has made contact unavoidable among the people with completely different living styles. Knowing and respecting each other are the best way for co-existence. In recent years, more and more Indonesian Muslims are coming to Taiwan. In view of geographic position and population size, they are also the most important Muslims for the Taiwanese market. This study was a preliminary research focused on Indonesian Muslims' dietary situations in Taiwan. It also explored the implementable practices which Taiwanese caterers can adopt at present to supply Muslim-friendly foods and dining environments. Many Indonesian Muslims actually do not expect foods and environments of 100% Halal in Taiwan, but "no pork and no alcohol" is the bottom line which should not be touched. As long as "no pork and no alcohol", which should be thoroughly implemented in the ingredients of food products as well as avoidance of contamination during processing and serving, can be assured by the credible institutes, many Indonesian Muslims can accept the restaurant cuisines in Taiwan.

Later, the Muslim-friendly standards revealed above should be further studied for their acceptability by the other Muslims (e.g. Malaysian Muslims are also important customers for Taiwanese tourism industry). After ensuring the bottom line that can be accepted by 70 ~ 80% Muslims visiting Taiwan, the implementation details should be well designed and standardized to simplify their practices.

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Appendix 1. Thirteen non-Halal dietary scenarios:

H_1: Desserts or beverages are prepared without any animal or alcohol ingredients, but they are not Halal certificated. ("No animal and alcohol ingredients" is marked on the signboards of restaurants or on the food packages.)
H_2: Milk without Halal certification.
H_3: Eggs without Halal certification.
H_4: The restaurants use only seafood and vegetable ingredients, but the raw materials are not Halal certificated. (On the signboards of restaurants, "seafood and plant ingredients only" is marked.)
H_5: The restaurants are poultry specialists (e.g. fried chicken), but they are not Halal certificated. ("No pork and alcohol ingredients" is marked on the signboards of restaurants.).
H_6: The restaurants are beef specialists (e.g. steak and curry beef), but they are not Halal certificated. ("No pork and alcohol ingredients" is marked on the signboards of restaurants.).
H_7: The restaurants don't have an independent Halal kitchen, but the Muslim and non-Muslim foods are prepared with the specific cooking tools and served with the specific tableware separately. (On the tools and tableware, "Muslims only" is marked.)
H_8: The restaurants serve pork and alcohol, but they prepare for Muslim customers a separate dining areas in which pork and alcohol are not served. (The area is marked "Muslims only". The Muslim and non-Muslim foods are cooked separately.)
H_9: The restaurants don't provide the Muslim style restrooms.
H_{10}: Some dogs are seen walking outside the restaurants.
H_{11}: The restaurants are decorated with some portraits or statues which are not related to religion. (Those may be artworks.)
H_{12}: The restaurants are decorated with some animal (not pig) or doll pictures (e.g. The cartoon style for children).
H_{13}: The restaurants or foods are not Halal certificated, but logoed by Taiwanese government with "Muslim friendly" which ensures that neither pork nor alcohol ingredients are used.

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